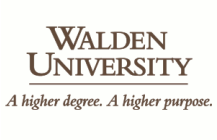

2019

Substance Use and Romantic Attachment Among African American and Black Caribbean Adult Males

Shaun Faith Hutton
Walden University

Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Shaun Hutton

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Neal McBride, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Rolande Murray, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Hannah Lerman, University Reviewer, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2019

Abstract

Substance Use and Romantic Attachment Among African American and Black Caribbean Adult Males

by

Shaun Hutton

MS, Pace University, 1996

BA, Binghamton University, 1994

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

General Educational Psychology

Walden University

May 2019

Abstract

Individuals from unfavorable environments tend to carry maladaptive patterns of attachment from infancy through adulthood. Empirically, these styles have been shown to be intergenerational. Substance use disorder has been linked to maladaptive patterns of attachment among adults. However, limited data exists regarding this phenomenon with African American and Black Caribbean males. Bowlby's attachment theory and Ainsworth's patterns of attachment were the theoretical frameworks applied to this quantitative study. The purpose was to determine the effect of ethnicity and alcohol use on anxious and avoidant attachment patterns among a sample of 151 adult males. Using the Experience in Close Relationship and two alcohol use measures, a (2x3) factorial MANOVA showed that the majority of participants reported secure attachment in romantic relationships with moderate alcohol use patterns. There were no significant differences between ethnicity and either attachment patterns, alcohol use and the attachment patterns, or ethnicity and alcohol use and the combined attachment patterns. However, future research using quantitative and qualitative approaches could capture a richer understanding of African American and Black Caribbean males and romantic attachments. The implications for positive social change include the significant benefit that can be derived from learning to create new internal working models. Clinicians working with African American and Black Caribbean males identified with insecure attachment can facilitate change in expected outcomes of interactions with others. Over time, these individuals could benefit from healthier, more adaptive attachment with others, including in romantic relationships.

Substance Use and Romantic Attachment Among African American and Black Caribbean Adult Males

by

Shaun Hutton

MS, Pace University, 1996

BA, Binghamton University, 1994

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

General Educational Psychology

Walden University

May 2019

Dedication

I am thankful to the Creator for His continued Grace and Mercy. I dedicate the completion of my dissertation to my family and friends. It is one of my most rewarding accomplishments. To my mother Hazel Leslie, you are my SHERO, the "wind beneath my wings." Thank you for being my example of excellence. To my aunt Jennifer Leslie-Lopez, thank you for reminding me to keep the faith. To my sister Shakara Mentor, you have taught me to never give up. I love you Sissy. To my amazing children Khaleelah and Ayana Harris, this is for you!!! I thank God for the opportunities He continues to grant me to become a better mother to you each day. To my friends Janele Young, Sonya Welch, and Valerie Jones, without your patience, support, and encouragement, I would not have made it. Thank you for providing the balance I need in my life. I am forever grateful. To Philip Morris Jones II, thank you for encouraging me to challenge myself. Thank you for the role you play in my life's journey. To my father, Dr. Disraeli Hutton, you inspired me. All my love and gratitude…Shaun

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank the members of my dissertation committee. To Drs. McBride and Murray, thank you for agreeing to take on the project with me, and for insisting on the best. I would also like to thank my peers in dissertation research whose feedback, as well as ongoing encouragement and support, helped me along a difficult journey.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Attachment develops as part of a process, which connects individuals with each other on a deep psychological level (Bowlby, 1969). Attachment development begins as soon as a child is born as the caregiver interacts with the child in an attempt to meet the child's needs. With continued interaction between caregiver and child, the bond that is formed serves as a critical aspect of healthy adaptive interpersonal development and self-esteem (Bowlby, 1969). Researchers have used Bowlby's attachment theory as the basis for understanding individual relationships. Learning about the factors influencing the development of interpersonal relationships has long been the focus of research. From caregiver to child (Shlafer & Poehlmann, 2010), husband to wife (Nosko, Tieu, Lawford, & Pratt, 2011), and employer to employee (Harms, 2011) dyads, the attachment existing between two individuals is theorized to be associated with the relationship developed during infancy. The process seems to serve as a springboard for all subsequent relationships in the life of the individual, from infancy and beyond.

While examining attachment between infant and caregiver, researcher Ainsworth described different styles of attachment between the dyad (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). From a secure to an insecure attachment style, (Ainsworth & Bowlby) noted there are several factors influencing the nature of the attachment that develop between individuals. In secure attachment, the child may demonstrate limited amounts of stress when separated from the caregiver. However, the sense of unease dissipates quickly because the child is confident the caregiver will return (Ainsworth & Bowlby). The child's individual temperament, the caregiver's unresponsiveness toward the child, and how well

the child's and caregiver's temperament fit are all factors which impact the attachment process (Perry, 2013). The nature of the relationship is dependent upon the role each person plays within the relationship itself. McConnell and Moss (2011) indicated that several factors affect patterns of attachment beyond infancy. The researchers noted that factors such as communication within the family as well as environmental factors influence patterns of attachment. The relationship between individuals is a phenomenon designed to sustain each person through time. The nature of the relationship is crucial to the quality of life each person experiences.

Shaver, Hazan, and Bradshaw (as cited in Sternberg & Barnes, 1988) postulated that in adulthood the role each person plays in a romantic relationship is to regulate distress and offer a secure base for each person in the relationship. Similar to the caregiver-child relationship, the romantic relationship offers the opportunity to ensure a sense of maturity and autonomy. The relationship that exists between romantic partners probably develops as an extension of caregiver-child bond. The interactions between caregiver and child create mental representations of expected future interactions. The mental representations the adult in the romantic relationship had with the caregiver growing up is likely to be the type of representations held in a romantic relationship (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2014).

In examining risk factors that directly impact the interaction between caregiver and child, and thus the nature of the internal working model (IWM) and attachment relationship, researchers have noted substance use disorder (SUD) as a significant risk factor (Borhani, 2013). In attachment research, an IWM is a cognitive framework for

understanding the self and others. Interactions with others are based on expectations and memories from these internal models. The representations are the basis for gauging contact with others. The American Psychiatric Association (APA; 2013) categorized SUD in 10 different classes of drugs. The classes include alcohol, cannabis, hallucinogens, opioids, and sedatives. For the purpose of this study, caffeine and tobacco are not included in references made to SUD. For the purpose of this study, I focused exclusively on alcohol use among the participants. The reason for the selection is made clear in the discussion of the purpose of this study.

This study was focused on the romantic attachment patterns of African American and Black Caribbean adult males. I anticipated the results of the study to add information to the current body of research literature regarding SUD, ethnicity, and the impact on patterns of attachment. There have been studies examining attachment relationships between parents and toddlers, as well as parents and infants. These studies have focused on improving attachment relationships (Bick & Dozier, 2013; Clausen, Aguilar, & Ludwig, 2012; Colmer, Rutherford, & Murphy, 2011; Suchman, DeCoste, Rosenberger, & McMahon, 2012). Research has focused on growing up with parents with a history of substance use disorder (PH-SUD). However, the impact such experiences have on specific ethnic groups is still currently lacking.

Chapter 2 contains an in-depth examination of both SUD and patterns of attachment as generational phenomena. There is a discussion of the literature that identifies the gap in current research as it relates to African American and Black Caribbean young adults and romantic attachments. Bowlby's theory of attachment and

Ainsworth's description of attachments styles were the theoretical foundation for this research study. I present the influential impact of both substance use and maladaptive attachments from a historical perspective. I also present the research question and the constructed hypotheses regarding romantic patterns of attachment, alcohol use, and ethnic identity.

Background of the Problem

SUD develops out of the uncontrollable and progressive drive to satisfy the craving for a particular substance of choice. The individual continues use despite marked behavioral, cognitive, and physiological symptoms (APA, 2013). Attempts have been made to explain the development of SUD (National Institute on Drug Abuse [NIDA], 2010). There are several models that have been presented over the years as possible reasons for the progression of the disorder. Crucial to this process was NIDA's presentation of the biological model as an explanation for continued substance use despite deleterious consequences. The information facilitated a shift in public opinion, which at that time in the 1920s regarded individuals diagnosed with SUD as morally corrupt.

Jellinek (1960) propelled the paradigm shift to the disease model. The researcher identified alcoholism as a brain disease and later generalized the concept to include other drugs (Jellinek). Within the researcher's disease model, SUD develops because of both environmental and biological factors (Jellinek). The field of substance use treatment has since adopted the disease model and explored different factors and the interplay between such factors and SUD.

Individuals develop SUD based on a desire to feel good or to lessen feelings of increased distress (NIDA, 2010). Increased distress might range from psychosocial factors such as illness, death, divorce, financial difficulties, and interpersonal conflict. An increase in the number of risk factors related to a progression in substance use dictates which individuals will continue to struggle with SUD. These risk factors include family history of substance use, substance use at an early age, and the route of administration of the substance of use (NIDA, 2010).

Unfortunately, both patterns of attachment (Shah, Fonagy, & Strathearn, 2011) and SUD (NIDA, 2012a) have been found to be generational. The learned approaches for interactions are carried down from one family member to the other. The members of the family come to expect the set of learned interactions that forms the mental representations previously discussed. Barring interventions aimed at breaking the cycle, the patterns are long lasting (McConnell & Moss, 2011; Shah et al., 2011). There were significant social and political outcries during the 1980s regarding children born to mothers with SUD (Lyman, 2013). Among the concerns was the implication of having a child born addicted to drugs. The health-related complications, as well as a lack of attachment formed between the mother and child, set into motion laws that sought to remove such children from the care of the mother as soon as possible (Grossman, 2013).

Notwithstanding years dedicated to solution-focused research and treatment, SUD continues to be associated with tremendous ramifications for families, communities, and the nation. According to recent data, SUD expenditures in the United States cost an astounding 600 billion dollars each year (NIDA, 2012b). From crimes and incarceration,

to social welfare programs, each member of society bears a portion of these costs (NIDA, 2012b). With regard to the impact on families, a recent survey conducted by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA; 2012) indicated that 10% of children in the United States who are younger than 18 years of age have at least one parent who struggles with a SUD. Children grow up in an environment where they witness the effects of parental substance use first-hand. Given the fact that children learn from watching what parents do, the development of the cycle of substance use is not surprising. The generational aspect of SUD has likely contributed to the challenges of effectively addressing the negative consequences. Over time SUD and its unintended consequences seem to become engrained in the structure and dynamics of the family.

Solis, Shadur, Burns, and Hussong (2012) and others examined substance use, parents, and children in great depth. Solis et al. (2012) reported that in households where both parents have a substance abuse disorder, an adaptive outcome for the children is limited. The children in this type of household are not likely to have options regarding a parent who is present and available to meet the needs of the child. However, Park and Schepp (2014) indicated that even in households where one parent has a SUD, if the other parent consistently maintains a nurturing environment for the child, the perception of attachment relationship with the nonsubstance-using parent tends to be positive. The child views the nonsubstance-using parents as a reliable source of need fulfillment. Despite the apparent bleak outlook with parent substance use and its generational potential, one parent can provide for the child's needs.

Research on the impact of PH-SUD on younger children is plentiful. However, a research focus beyond that focus is limited. There has been a steady increase of SUD among parents in households across the country, as well as an equally steady increase of use among the adolescent population (NIDA, 2010). This finding supports the concept of the generational factor involved in substance use. A search for more recent statistical data regarding the rate of drug use among parents and adolescents yielded no new information. However, given today's current substance-using climate, it stands to reason that shedding light on the caregiver-child relationship and the far-reaching effects of SUD on factors such as patterns of attachment is important.

The point of reference for both how to interact in a romantic relationship and the set of held expectations about such relationship are directly derived from demonstrated examples within the family. Facilitating change in the experience of romantic attachment relationship may serve to interrupt the generational cycle of both SUD and maladaptive patterns of attachment. Indeed, it may be difficult for persons with a history of SUD to establish and maintain healthy attachments. The difficulties are directly related to the focus on substances of choice. Wierson (2012) reported substance use takes away from attachment relationships as the individual with the SUD actively elects to spend less time nurturing such relationships. For a number of PH-SUD, the focus is often on having a primary relationship with a substance of choice rather than on children (Niccols et al., 2012). The PH-SUD often have personal childhood histories of maladaptive attachment relationships with primary caregivers due to the parents' struggles with a SUD (Read &

Bentall, 2012). For some PH-SUD, the ability to make conscious efforts attending to the security and safety needs of a child is compromised.

It is possible that the desire to engage in substance seeking and substance use behaviors serve as a barrier preventing some parents from attuning to personal mental states. The mental states of the child for whom the parent is caring may also be neglected. The parent with such a history may be unable to take into consideration the thoughts and feelings of the child (Lander, Howsare, & Byrne, 2013). Consequently, the attachment formation is likely to be negatively impacted. The negative impact may stem from the inconsistent manner in which interactions occur between caregiver and child. The child learns to expect that the parent will not always be available to satisfy its needs.

The mental state of others is also tied into the concept of attachment. The development of an attachment bond when a young child interacts with a primary caregiver sets the stage for the nature of future interactions. Hazan and Shaver (1987) built on Bowlby's theory in the context of romantic relationships and reiterated how such relationships parallel the caregiver-child interaction and subsequent bond development in early childhood. The mental representations of expected interactions have developed over time and serve as a blueprint for how the individual will function in interpersonal relationships.

The factor of ethnicity is an important variable when examining individual relationships because cultural norms and expectations play a significant role in how individuals function relationally. Recent studies conducted on ethnicity highlight African American adults and issues such as poverty, physical health issues (Egan, 2013), mental

health (Fripp, 2015; Lesane, 2013) and education (Durrah, 2013). These research topics are of historical significance given the fact that these issues have been salient in the African American community.

Bowlby (1969) highlighted the importance of attachment bonds and their relevance in the lives of individuals. The researcher recognized the significance of these bonds as vital to the emotional wellbeing of the individual. With research data supporting the idea that members in the identified ethnic groups do not adaptively address negative emotions experienced within an attachment relationship, exploring the effect of ethnicity and substance use on attachment seems logical.

Problem Statement

Arguably, the most devastating impact of SUD is the transgenerational nature of the progression (Straussner & Fewell, 2011). Providing a child with an appropriately stable and nurturing environment is essential and necessary in preparation for effectively moving through childhood, adolescence, and into adulthood. For some families when this process does not occur there is an increased risk of SUD and maladaptive attachment issues among children growing up in an environment lacking in nurturing interactions and stability (Whitesell, Bachand, Peel, & Brown, 2013). From as far back as 3 decades ago, a concerted effort was in place to address what is seen as problematic on several levels.

There is a dearth of information regarding substance use and its impact among individuals beyond early childhood. Similarly, it must be noted that current literature is lacking in research regarding adolescents and patterns of attachment with caregivers. It

appears that time and effort has been spent on studying early exposure and its impact, while neglecting the latter years. Comparative information on adulthood is necessary to provide a more complete picture of these variables.

Therefore, the focus of this research study concerned adult males. Specifically, there is a scarcity of research data available focused on African American and Black Caribbean individuals as it relates to patterns of attachment in general, and romantic attachment in particular. Current research literature is geared primarily toward examining romantic attachment issues holistically without specific breakdown regarding the ethnic background of study participants. Ignoring this crucial element in the research literature effectively minimizes the possible influence of ethnicity on romantic patterns of attachment among young adults within the scope of this study. I was able to find one current study on alcohol use and African Americans that McDaniel (2013) conducted, and another on attachment conducted by Underwood (2013). Both studies highlighted the lack of focus on the African American population in traditional research. However, a specific focus on differences within the African American population was not examined in either research.

In attempting to explain the gap in the research literature, it was important to examine the ethnic perspective of individuals identified as the focus of the current study. Traditionally, individuals from African American and Black Caribbean background view autonomy as a culturally desired norm (Merz & Consedine, 2012). Researchers Merz and Consedine (2012) also indicated that members of these ethnic backgrounds tend to feel more comfortable and thrive on self-sufficiency as it may be viewed as a sign of personal

strength and perseverance. These norms are derived from the context of coexisting within a society where issues of race relations and expectations abound.

Additionally, members of the aforementioned ethnic groups may come from environments where they deliberately ignore or minimize negative emotions (Merz & Consedine, 2012). Identifying and discussing thoughts and feelings regarding interpersonal needs are thought to be unnecessary. Bringing these aspects of an interpersonal relationship to light is likely viewed as allowing oneself to be vulnerable. The fear exists that the vulnerability leaves the individual open to possible disappointment or dependence on another person.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative research project was to determine the effect of ethnicity and alcohol use on anxious and avoidant attachment patterns among adult male Facebook users. Specifically, the participants were African American and Black Caribbean. Within the Black Caribbean category, the participants were from Jamaica, Haiti, or the Bahamas. The independent variables identified were ethnicity and alcohol use. The dependent variables in this study were anxious attachment and avoidant attachment. A detailed explanation of each variable and the selected measures are contained in the Nature of Study section.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and hypotheses served to guide this research study:

RQ: Do anxious attachment and avoidant attachment differ across ethnicity and alcohol use patterns among African-American and Black Caribbean adult males?

$H_0$1: Ethnicity does not have a significant effect on anxious attachment and avoidant attachment.

H_a1: Ethnicity has a significant effect on anxious attachment and avoidant attachment.

$H_0$2: Alcohol use does not have a significant effect on anxious attachment and avoidant attachment.

H_a2: Alcohol use does have a significant effect on anxious attachment and avoidant attachment.

$H_0$3: Ethnicity and alcohol use do not significantly interact to influence anxious attachment and avoidant attachment.

H_a3: Ethnicity and alcohol use do significant interact to influence anxious attachment and avoidant attachment

Theoretical Framework

There are numerous theories about the nature of patterns of attachment. From Bowlby (1969), Harlow and Suomi (1970), Ainsworth and Bowlby (1991), to Main (1996), researchers have explored the bond formed between people, how the bond is developed and maintained, and the factors that affect the bond. For the purpose of this research study, I used Bowlby's theory on attachment (1969) and Ainsworth and Bell's (1970) description of observed interaction between parent and child to address the research questions. Both theory and observations collectively served to set the foundation

for exploring the interaction among romantic attachment patterns, ethnicity, and alcohol use.

Bowlby's motivation to explore attachment among children evolved from his personal encounters as a volunteer at a residential facility for troubled youths. It was his belief that a child's personality is directly influenced by the interactions with the primary caregiver (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). In the same context, Bowlby believed a primary caregiver's personality has been influenced by interactions with parents during childhood (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991).

Bowlby indicated caregivers who are available and responsive to the needs of the child help in developing a sense of safety and security with which the child then explores the world. Additionally, the interaction between the child and the caregiver is a determinant in how the child relates to others and views the self (Bowlby, 1969). Bowlby (1981) found that mothers, whom he viewed as primary caregivers or primary attachment figures, innately want to provide safety and security for children. In this process, attachment to the primary caregiver occurs. At the point when attachment develops, the child begins exploration of surroundings (Bowlby, 1981).

Researcher Ainsworth sought to discover more about the connection between how personality evolved as the influence of parental interactions in childhood occurred (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). In 1979, Ainsworth expanded upon Bowlby's theory. The researcher examined the impact of patterns of attachment on behavior among children 12 to 18 months (Ainsworth, 1979). Ainsworth and Bell (1970) developed the *strange situation* scenario. The experiment was specifically created to examine patterns of

attachment between caregivers and their children. The process involved the researchers observing 1-year-old children at play while caregivers and strangers entered and exited the observation room (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970). The researchers found the children exhibited three different and distinct patterns of attachment based on the nature of the interactions children had with attachment figure. Ainsworth identified that some children exhibited secure attachment, while others exhibited insecure attachment patterns including anxious-avoidant and anxious-ambivalent. An elaboration on each of Ainsworth's identified patterns of attachment will follow.

As a child grows older, there is awareness for the perspective of others that previously had not been considered. According to Crittenden and Ainsworth (as cited in Cicchetti & Carlson, 1989), the level of communication increases as the child develops cognitively. Both the parent and child should effectively communicate mutual agreements regarding each other's needs and satisfaction. If the parent's ability to engage in this exchange is absent or inconsistent regarding the successful communication of feelings and intentions to the child, the child will be unable to develop the ability to discern the perspective of others with whom the child interacts (Crittenden & Ainsworth, as cited in Cicchetti & Carlson, 1989). As with healthy patterns, the aforementioned cycle of attachment develops, and if not interrupted, continues from one generation to the next.

Both Bowlby and Ainsworth's studies provide the exploratory basis for the current study. These researchers placed valuable emphasis on the role of the caregiver in the child's adaptive development (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). The two viewpoints on attachment development, manifestation, and continuation, whether secure or insecure,

provided a foundation for this study in relation to romantic attachment, ethnicity, and alcohol use. I provide a more detailed elaboration of Bowlby and Ainsworth's theory and their applicability to this research study in Chapter 2. I present research there highlighting the generational pattern of both attachment and alcohol use and the possible interactions with ethnicity.

Bowlby and Ainsworth's work (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970; Bowlby, 1969) relate to the research question and study approach as it was my goal to determine how patterns of attachment are influenced by ethnicity and alcohol use. Bowlby viewed the caregiver role as critical to the overall development of the child through adulthood (Bowlby, 1969). Seeking to learn more about the influence of ethnicity and alcohol use on patterns of attachment scarcely explored in the current literature will further expand the theory. Learning more about the variables that may impact romantic attachment among young adult study participants is in line with Bowlby and Ainsworth's work.

Nature of the Study

I based the selection of the 2x3 factorial design on the premise that I would be able to examine mean differences in the two dependent variables of anxious attachment and avoidant attachment between the groups of independent variables, ethnicity and alcohol use. I used a quantitative approach for data collection and analyzed potential interaction between ethnicity and alcohol use on anxious and avoidant attachment among young adult males where alcohol use (none, moderate, heavy) and ethnicity (African American, Black Caribbean) were the independent variables; anxious attachment and avoidant attachment were the dependent variables. The rationale for using a quantitative

method approach stemmed from its appropriateness for systematic comparison of the independent variables in the study of ethnicity and alcohol use, and the dependent variables of anxious and avoidant attachment. Within the scope of this study, ethnicity refers the identification with and feeling of being a part of a particular group of people. The identification is based on culture, language, and ancestral background (Cornell & Hartmann, 2007). Ethnicity in this study consisted of the two groups: African American and Black Caribbean.

For the purpose of this study, substance use referred to the degree to which an individual consumes alcohol. Collected data for the independent variable of alcohol use was based on African American and Black Caribbean study participants answering "yes" or "no" to the SAMHSA criteria for moderate and heavy alcohol use. A third category of "nonuse" was used to as well (SAMHSA, 2015). I used two separate measures for the independent variables. The guidelines were established by SAMHSA (2015) as a measure for substance use. The measures included moderate and heavy drinking. Moderate drinking is considered to be up to one drink daily for women and up to two drinks daily for men. Heavy drinking is considered up to five or more drinks in one sitting on each of the five days the past 30 days. Alcohol use was measured using a 3-item questionnaire with a nominal scale of "yes" or "no" options. The participants were required to select one single affirmative response from the list of three questions.

In attempting to establish what constitutes one drink, I identified the typical drink amounts that are used in the literature; these were used in this study. After reviewing current research literature, the typical alcohol drink was noted to be 12 ounces of beer, a

5-ounce glass of wine, or 1.5 ounce shot of hard alcohol (Connell, Patton, & McKillop, 2015; Mallet, Marzell, Scaglione, Hultgren, & Turrisi, 2014; Wells et al., 2015).

The dependent variables were anxious attachment and avoidant attachment. The variables were the focus of researchers Hazan and Shaver's (1990) seminal work in developing a scale to measure. The two researchers expanded Bowlby's attachment theory and Ainsworth's attachment patterns and applied both to adults. In Hazan and Shaver's body of work, romantic attachment refers to the deep emotional bond felt toward another individual. As the researchers explained, factors such as sex and caregiving are essential in all romantic relationships. Following Hazan and Shaver's expansion of attachment styles to adults, other researchers sought to measure and rate adult attachment patterns. One such measure is the Experiences in Close Relationship Scale-Short Form (ECR-S).

The ECR-S was used to gather data regarding attachment scores associated with the tool (see Wei, Russell, Mallinckrodt, & Vogel, 2007). The scale is a self-report questionnaire used to measure adult romantic attachment styles. The 12-item scale examines two patterns of attachment in adult relationships: anxiety and avoidance. Respondents answered questions regarding experiences in romantic relationships. On the ECR-S Likert scale items ranged from one (Strongly Disagree) to seven (Strongly Agree). I reconfigured the scale based on the developers' general consent regarding the use of the scale in research studies. The administration of the attachment scale produced numerical values from six items measuring anxiety and six items measuring avoidance.

For each scale, scores ranged from 6-42. Participant scores ranging from 6-28 were indicative of a secure attachment style on both the avoidant and anxiety scales. Scores ranging from 29-42 on avoidant and anxiety scales were indicative of an insecure attachment relationship style.

Garland (1991) indicated the exclusion of a neutral response option in a scale helps to bolster a researcher's goal of reducing or eliminating response bias. Losby and Wetmore (2012) reported that removing the neutral response option of an odd numbered scale would force the respondent to select an answer. This forced selection according to Losby and Wetmore may contribute to biasing the response that may not be an accurate reflection of opinion. I reconfigured the scale allowing for its appropriate use with the selected statistical design. I moved the middle neutral score of four to the end of the scale. Therefore, the scale ranged from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" followed by the neutral option. The total number of responses remained at seven. The neutral option was not included in the mean calculations. Each participant's score for the romantic attachment was the average of total responses from the 12 questions on the ECR-S questionnaire.

Using the 2x3 factorial MANOVA, I analyzed the potential interaction between ethnicity and alcohol use on anxious attachment and avoidant attachment among adult males where ethnicity (African American, Black Caribbean) and alcohol use (none, moderate, heavy) were the independent variables and anxious attachment and avoidant attachment were the dependent variables. Based on the calculated score and

determination of patterns of attachment, I was able to identify whether significant differences existed among the groups.

I collected data from adult male Facebook users who met the study criteria data. Study participants did not receive monetary compensation. In addition to completing a demographic questionnaire (Appendix B), they were asked to complete the questionnaires regarding personal and familial alcohol use history (Appendix C and D) and romantic attachment.

Definitions

Adult Children of Alcoholics (ACOA): Adults who grew up in a household where one or two parents were alcoholics. The adults exhibit specific characteristics behaviorally and cognitively ranging from the inability to ascertain normal behavior to having difficulty with interpersonal relationships. (Adult Children of Alcoholics World Service Organization, 2017).

Attachment bond: An affectionate bond between a child and an attachment figure. This bond is important to the child's need for safety and security (Perry, 2013).

Anxious-ambivalent: Insecure attachment style identified by Mary Ainsworth in the strange situation study. The child is unsettled in the presence of strangers, even if the parent is visible. The child becomes overly distressed when the parent is absent (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991).

Anxious-avoidant: Insecure attachment style identified by Mary Ainsworth in the strange situation study. After the parent returns to the room, the child is observed to ignore the parent or might look briefly in the parent's direction. The child, according to

Ainsworth's observation, responds to both the parent and the stranger in the same unsure manner (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991).

Caregivers: Individual primarily responsible for meeting the safety and security needs of a child or someone who is unable to provide such needs for self.

Children of alcoholics (COA): Children growing up in a household where one or both parents are alcoholics.

Department of Children and Families (DCF): Florida state agency with duties that include assigning thoroughly trained individuals to monitor families in which the caregivers were deemed negligent in providing proper care for a minor child (Florida Department of Children and Families, 2014).

Disorganized attachment: In Ainsworth's strange situation study, this type of attachment was used to describe when there was no clear explanation of the infant's response to the caregiver, whether while in the caregiver's presence or while the caregiver was absent (Main, 1996).

Drug of choice: The favored illicit drug of an individual.

Long-term history of substance use: Period greater than 12 months of sustained illicit substance use (SAMHSA, 2015).

Maltreatment: The physical, emotional ill-treatment, or neglect resulting in either actual or potential harm to the health, dignity, development, or survival a child under the age of 18. The maltreatment occurs within a relationship of responsible, power, or trust (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014; World Health Organization, 2014).

Mental states: Term used to describe all mental experiences including thoughts, feelings, and intentions (Bowlby, 1969).

Patterns of attachment: Variations in the way a child assesses accessibility to an attachment figure and the way regulation occurs in response to threat (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991).

Primary caregiver: The adult individual responsible for meeting the needs of the child (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). Bowlby initially viewed the mother as the primary caregiver for an infant. The mother was seen as the source of safety and security for the child who soon learns about exploring the world around him or her. Later during Bowlby's research, he expanded the term to include anyone who serves as the primary provider of safety and security needs for the child.

Protective factors: Factors or characteristics that serve to decrease the likelihood of substance abuse (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2014).

Risk factors: Factors are characteristics that serve to increase the likelihood of substance use (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2014).

Safety and security: Concept originating with Bowlby in which the primary caregiver creates an environment in which he child's chances for survival are increased based on consistently meeting the child's needs (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). When a child is able to feel safe and secure, exploration of his or her environment is done without fear because the child knows that should something happen, the caregiver will be there to provide protection.

Secure attachment: In Ainsworth's strange situation study, this pattern is used to describe when the infant is viewed as initially upset when caregiver leaves, but is confident in the caregiver's return and therefore begins to explore the environment (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). This form of attachment is adaptive and ideal as it demonstrates healthy interpersonal relationship development between people.

Short-term history of substance use: This period is fewer than 12 months of sustained substance use (SAMHSA, 2015).

Strange situation: This experimental setting was created by Ainsworth to observe attachment relationships between a child and a caregiver (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). Infants were observed in terms of interaction with caregivers and the observed patterns of interactions were later identified.

Substance use disorder (SUD): An array of issues arising from the direct result of substance use. A substance includes alcohol, cannabis, hallucinogens, stimulants, and sedatives. Use of the substance for longer than intended, continued use despite problems occurring in relationships, and needing more of the substance than intended to get the desired effect are among the problems associated with a SUD. (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013).

Substance Use Disorder Diagnostic Schedule (SUDDS-V): A structured objective 30-45 minutes diagnostic tool used provide information about an individual's current or lifetime usage of alcohol and other drugs. It is based on the established criteria noted in the DSM-V (Hoffmann & Harrison, 2013).

Assumptions

It was assumed that when study participants are completing the questionnaires about substance use and attachment patterns they will do so honestly. To help promote participant honesty, I elected to focus specifically on alcohol as the focus of questions regarding substance use. The inclusion of other substances may create the unwanted factor of participants answering the questions in a manner they view as socially appropriate. However, alcohol use is more socially acceptable than other substances (Haardorfer et al., 2016).

Another assumption in this study is that participants are indeed African American and Black Caribbean adult males. To bolster criteria maintenance, I identified the meaning of the terms African American and Black Caribbean within the context of this research study. The criterion for each group was defined in the instructions for demographic questionnaire that the participants completed.

A third assumption is that participants were authentically interested in the study. As such, the participants do not have clandestine motives including but not limited to hopes of improving course grade. In order to ensure participants underlying reasons for participation does not include the goal of grade advancement, a statement regarding payments as an incentive was included in the consent form.

A final assumption of this study relates to the use of a convenience sample. According to Elmes, Kantowitz, and Roediger (2012), it is an accepted part of research practice in the discipline of psychology to assume that results can be generalized beyond the population sampled for a particular study. However, according to Herek (2012) a

researcher should avoid drawing conclusions from any nonprobability sampling techniques in a study. Herek indicated that the findings from such a study could not be applied to individuals beyond the scope of the study.

Additionally, Herek (2012) noted that economic constraints and issues related to research design make the use of probability sampling difficult to achieve. To address the issue of the convenience sample used for the current study, I elected not to speculate about the findings and its applicability beyond the study participants. Additionally, I strongly recommend further studies be conducted using different data collection methods. If subsequent studies yield findings similar to this current study, then inferences can be made (Herek, 2012).

Scope and Delimitations

Research participants were limited to adult males who met criteria based on ethnic descriptions provided as a part the collection of demographic information. The participants were asked about alcohol use and romantic relationship patterns.

I used the county demographic data upon which to base the selection of Caribbean countries to be represented in the study. Data regarding ethnic populations in three Florida counties including Palm Beach have confirmed that Haiti, Jamaica, and the Bahamas are the top three Caribbean countries represented in the Palm Beach County area (Frazier, Tettey-Fio, & Henry, 2016). I elected to limit the research criteria to participants from the aforementioned countries. Additionally, parental ethnic background was limited to the individuals from the identified countries.

Limitations

A limitation of the study is the use of self-reports from the participants in the study. The data the Facebook users provided cannot readily be verified by the researcher. A particular bias that may occur within the study is the participant's possible desire to provide the researcher with a response that would seem more favorable toward the particular individual.

In an attempt to address these issues thereby preventing the bias from negatively impacting the study results, I ensured questions posed to participants were worded carefully as to prevent the tendency of the participant seeking to appear favorable in the study. The questions were simple and concise and allowed the participant to select from a choice of at least three responses. I took an extra step to minimize participant tendency to provide responses considered favorable or socially acceptable. Specifically, I elected to limit substance use to include alcohol, a more socially accepted substance of use as previously indicated.

In addressing the issue of generalizing to the population at large, this research states specifically in the discussion of findings that the results of the study should not be applied to the general population with regard to the patterns of attachment identified. There are a number of concerns regarding attachment measures because of the tendency to assume the mutual exclusivity of a particular categorization (Gillath, Karantzas, & Fraley, 2016). The researcher noted that within each of the two categories of attachment, an individual does not have to permanently remain in one category or the other, but rather can change over time dependent upon subsequent interactions.

Significance

The study added to current knowledge by including specific data regarding the ethnicity variable. Previous research has focused on improving attachment between parents in SUD recovery and their infant/toddler children. Research has also focused on parental attachment and infants (Clausen et al., 2012; Murphy et al., 2014; Pajulo et al., 2012; Spangler, Maier, Geserick, & von Wahlert, 2010). However, the intergenerational cycle of maladaptive patterns of attachment, coupled with the devastating impact of SUD within families, can and has led to significant social crises that include its impact beyond the early years. Examining African American and Black Caribbean adults as separate ethnic groups regarding substance use and how both variables affect romantic attachment patterns provide information regarding how the individuals function in relationships.

Summary

The studies by Nosko et al. (2011) and Shlafer and Poehlmann (2010) are among the numerous studies that have been focused on improving attachment relationships between parents and children, as well as adults. In examining risk factors impacting attachment, substance use has been linked to the development of maladaptive patterns of attachment (Borhani, 2013). The current study was in response to the scarcity of research data focused specifically on African American and Black Caribbean adult males. I examined the interaction between ethnicity and alcohol use on avoidant and anxious attachment.

The research question posed was: Do anxious attachment and avoidant attachment differ across ethnicity and alcohol use patterns among African-American and Black

Caribbean adult males? I used Bowlby's attachment theory in conjunction with Ainsworth's patterns of attachment as the theoretical framework. As a part of a quantitative research design, study participants completed survey questionnaires centered on obtaining information about their romantic attachment patterns, and personal as well as familial alcohol use patterns. Limitations of this study include the tendency of participants to provide socially acceptable responses.

In Chapter 2, I provide a detailed review of the current literature on the subjects of alcohol use, patterns of attachment, as well as young adults from the identified ethnic backgrounds. I present literature to demonstrate the critically important role seeking to change the nature of possible maladaptive romantic patterns of attachment in relationships can play.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine the effects of ethnicity and alcohol use on anxious and avoidant attachment patterns among African American and Black Caribbean adult males. Substance use and romantic attachment patterns as separate phenomena have been long studied in the field of psychology. However, current data lacks information regarding African American and Black Caribbean adults with regard to romantic attachment and substance use. Learning about how alcohol use interacts with ethnicity is significant to the current study. A review of the available literature shines light on the impact each factor may have on attachment patterns.

Arguably, the most devastating impact of SUD is the transgenerational nature of the progression and continuation (Straussner & Fewell, 2011). Researchers Straussner and Fewell (2011) noted that the long-standing interaction amongst family members creates a pattern not easily altered. Interpersonal exchanges become entrenched within the family, and its members perpetuate the learned behaviors over time. In order to prevent the transgenerational nature of substance use, Straussner and Fewell (2011) suggested parents approach the issue of parenting with a clear strategy. Providing a child with an appropriately stable and nurturing environment is essential and necessary in preparation for effectively moving through childhood, adolescence, and into adulthood (Straussner & Fewell, 2011). Long studied negative consequences arise when a home environment is void of stability and nurturing.

The factors of stability and nurturing is directly associated with the nature of the attachment bond between child and caregiver. The bond formed is essential for adaptive

development (Bowlby, 1969). In fact, the caregiver's ability to be in concert with the child's safety and security needs goes beyond environmental. The bond between infant and primary caregiver has also been associated with stabilizing biological indicators of perceived threat (Laurent, Ablow, & Measelle, 2012). Researchers have noted attunement in the levels of biological indicators to stressful situations in both infant and primary caregivers in Ainsworth's strange situation experiment (Laurent et al., 2012). The stress levels of the primary caregiver are related to that of the child. For example, if an infant demonstrated elevated stress levels when confronted with a fearful situation, the stress levels of the caregiver was also noted to be elevated (Laurent et al., 2012). Both as an environmental and biological factor, the nature of the interaction caregiver-child dyad has far reaching implications for the child.

The nature of repeated interactions between caregiver and child plays an important role in the child's life. It is based on interaction with the primary caregiver where the infants develop a concept relating to whether the self is worthy of love, safety, and security. When the bond is impacted by PH-SUD, the result is often a multigenerational pattern of SUD (NIDA, 2012a) and maladaptive attachment styles (Shah et al., 2011). The child attempts to make sense of and manage the nature of the interaction with the caregiver. Within this environment, the bond or level of attunement is generally absent because of the caregiver's unavailability to attend to the infant's safety and security needs. The child develops attachment styles that are designed to match the nature of the interaction with the caregiver (Shah et al., 2011).

Working with Ainsworth, researcher Crittenden developed the concept of dynamic maturation model as a way to explain the seemingly complex patterns of attachment seen between caregiver and child (Crittenden & Ainsworth, as cited in Cicchetti & Carlson, 1989). The complicated nature of the interaction reflects the child's cognitive development and ability to create self-protective measures comparable to interaction with the caregiver. The child's ability to process the nature of the patterns of interaction between self and the caregiver determines how the child reacts. In reviewing the dynamic maturation model, Shah et al. (2011) noted that the child's cognition about and feelings regarding interaction with the caregiver determines the kind of attachment developed. If the interaction does not require any distortions to feel safe and secure, the resulting attachment is secure. However, if the interaction between caregiver and child require distortions, the resulting attachment is not secure (Shah et al., 2011).

In examining the interaction styles associated with unpredictable environments, Peter (2012) reported ACOA are more likely to be categorized as exhibiting insecure attachment patterns such as anxious-ambivalent and anxious-avoidant. The researcher posited that for adults in romantic relationships the pattern of attachment is a continuation of the interactions experienced in childhood. *Romantic attachment* is a term Hazan and Shaver (1987) developed as an extension of Bowlby's (1969) theory of attachment. The researchers postulated the patterns developed through the interaction of caregiver and child is carried over into adulthood. As such, young adults reference the mental representations held about relationships in general, and romantic relationships in particular (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). In adult romantic relationships, the nature of

interaction between each person is based on childhood beliefs and expectations (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Similar to the manner in which a child relies on a caregiver for safety and security, adults in a romantic relationship rely on each other for the same (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

For some families, there is an increased risk of SUD and maladaptive attachment issues among children growing up in such a setting (Whitesell et al., 2013). The cycle of maladaptive attachment interactions and SUD tend to remain over time unless appropriate intervention occurs (McConnell & Moss, 2011). The mental representations developed from childhood carry over through adulthood and influence how the ACOA views current relationships. A multigenerational aspect of SUD is developed based on parenting patterns, including a significant degree of inconsistent monitoring and with a minimal quality of interaction (Solis et al., 2012). Generally, replication of the home environment dynamics occurs unless there is an introduced change agent. However, as Lander et al. (2013) noted, the timing of intervention is of critical importance. By the time an adult parent makes the decision to enter treatment, the impact on a child born into such an environment is likely to be devastating in many instances.

The organization of Chapter 2 has been developed to provide a comprehensive review of the current literature available on the research topic. I present Bowlby and Ainsworth's studies on infant attachment styles to provide the historical background from which the current research project is based (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970; Bowlby, 1969). Bowlby and Ainsworth's studies have been used in varied and plentiful research (Cassidy et al., 2010; Clausen et al., 2012; Dennis, 2010; Eiden et al., 2010).I present a thorough

review of relevant literature on each research variable and justification for applying Bowlby's theory.

Literature Search Strategy

The Elton B. Stephens Company publishes thousands of journal articles in various fields of study including psychology and logs these into a searchable database that is accessed online. I used this database and performed a research literature search through peer-reviewed journal articles from PsycArticles, subject and author information from PsycInfo, and books from PsycBooks. *Alcohol use*, *attachment*, *romantic attachment*, and *African American*, *Black Caribbean*, and *ethnicity* were among the terms used for this literature review. The time parameters I used for this research were between 1969 and 2017. The dated research information includes the seminal works of both Bowlby and Ainsworth.

A number of research investigations have been conducted on attachment styles among infants, toddlers, and parents (Cassidy, Woodhouse, Sherman, Stupica, & Lejuez, 2011; Dykas & Cassidy, 2011; Lamb, Thompson, Gardner, & Charnov, 2013). Several researchers focused on the ways through which individuals with personal histories of childhood parental SUD viewed childhood attachment patterns as adults. As adults, the individuals are able to discuss childhood experiences gained through growing up in a household with a PH-SUD. The experience influenced the manner in which the parent-child interaction evolved (Friesen, Woodward, Horwood, & Fergusson, 2013; Mills-Koone et al., 2011). Other studies researched how adolescents viewed attachment bonds with parents who were actively engaged in substance use. Such studies explored

adolescent views of both the father and the mother attachment bonds, whether one or both parents had struggled with a SUD (Sousa et al., 2011).

As demonstrated through a literature search for research in this specific area, there is limited data available on African American and Black Caribbean young adults with regard to romantic attachment. Research conducted on various age groups of adults has also been completed (Cusimano & Riggs, 2013; Dinero, Conger, Shaver, Widaman, & Larsen-Rife, 2008; Polland, Riggs, & Hook, 2014). The studies have collectively been about the influence of family of origin dynamics on romantic attachments. The studies' participants were identified demographically by gender and race, but specific ethnic breakdowns were left out. I felt it necessary to examine the possible differences that exist among individuals.

Theoretical Foundation

As noted previously, Bowlby's attachment theory and Ainsworth's attachment patterns are the theoretical foundations of this study (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970; Bowlby, 1969). Bowlby's theory originated with his interest in attachment bonds between mothers and infants. The theory is based upon 10 tenets. The theory posits each child is born with an innate motivating force to seek and maintain contact with a primary caregiver. The theory suggests that a child is not completely independent or dependent upon a caregiver, but rather develops effective or ineffective attachments. A greater level of secure dependence fosters a greater level of self-confidence within the child. Attachment offers a safe haven that provides the child safety and security (Catherall, 2014).

The caregiver serves as a source for a secure base. A secure base allows the child to explore the environment with the knowledge the caregiver is going to be available to attend to the child's needs. Responsiveness and accessibility on the part of the caregiver foster secure bonding with the child. The development of distress occurs in any situation in which the child is unable to access the caregiver (Sampaio & Lifter, 2014). In times of fear and uncertainty, the need for attachment is activated. The child will actively seek out the caregiver. Anger, clinging, and depression are among the responses the child exhibits during periods in which the attachment seeking behaviors fail to elicit a response from the attachment figure (Catherall, 2014).

The attachment theory posits there are two ways in which insecure attachment occurs (Catherall, 2014). Anxiety develops when the connection the child has with the caregiver is threatened. Attachment behaviors such as clinging are heightened as the child attempts to obtain a response from the caregiver. Avoidance develops when the child realizes all hope for a connection with the caregiver is lost (Catherall, 2014). In an attempt to cope with the loss, the child begins to ignore the need for connection and instead focuses on engaging in activities or tasks. The child completely avoids engagement with the caregiver who the child now views as a source of emotional distress. The interactions the child has with a caregiver forms IWMs of all other interactions and contributes significantly to the child's view of self and worthiness as an individual (Sampaio & Lifter, 2014).

Bowlby's theory has been applied to research studies similar to my project. In a study conducted by Sanchez-Nunez, Fernandez-Berrocal, and Latorre (2012), the

researchers examined parents, children and emotional intelligence, both self-reported and perceived. Parents' perception of their ability to ascertain personal emotional intelligence and the emotional state of their children was statistically significant. Additionally, the study examined the child's ability to identify their individual emotional state as well as that of their parent. Findings of the study included a positive relationship between the parent's ability to identify the child's emotional state and the child's ability to identify personal emotional states.

Zimmer-Gembeck, Webb, Thomas and Klag (2015) examined the relationship between mothers and toddlers looking closely at parenting associated with satisfying the need of the child. The study also focused on attachment and attitude toward the role of parenting. The study results demonstrated a greater degree of secure attachment in parent-child dyads in which parents reported greater sensitivity to meeting the need of the child. The development of secure attachment is thought to serve as a protective factor against substance use. The bond developed between an adolescent and parent seems to be critical in preventing substance use among adolescents. Wang, Kvis, and Miller (2012) examined how factors such as culture difference places adolescents from the Asian community at risk as the need to blend into the predominant culture increases the likelihood of greater distancing between parent and adolescent. The researchers found that with an increased negative perception of attachment toward parents, children from Asian American families were at risk for substance use.

Bowlby's attachment theory was selected as the framework for this study because of its application in other research studies about SUD (Söderström & Skårderud, 2013;

Thorberg & Lyvers, 2010). The theory also provides a plausible explanation for the state of attachment relationship between the parent and child in general, and for the focus of this current study, romantic attachment among young adults. The typical unavailability of a PH-SUD to provide safety and security needs to a child appears to have a possible negative impact on the nature of the attachment relationship between parent and child (Söderström & Skårderud, 2013) as well as future relationships. The research questions in this study raise important new aspects of the nature of the attachment relationship. Such factors include how individuals perceive the relationship in which they are involved and how changes can be made to help create a healthy adaptive relationship in an instance where there is none. For examples among the African American and Black Caribbean young adults exploring the level of attachment in romantic relationships may highlight historical challenges related to the impact of parental SUD.

Literature Review of Key Variables

Development of Attachment Patterns

Bowlby (1988) believed that providing the most optimal environment for the child, one in which there are healthy interactions would result in healthy attachment styles. From a biological or evolutionary perspective, the attachment bond developed with the primary caregiver is essential for the child's survival. Although the infant will eventually develop attachments with other individuals, the bond with the mother is most important, qualitatively. The infant's attachment relationship with its mother is a unique one (Bowlby, 1988). Bowlby indicated the failure to establish qualitative attachment bond with the primary caregiver is associated with the inability to develop an attachment

relationship, which contributes to a host of negative consequences including depression and increased aggression (Bowlby, 1988).

Bowlby (1988) viewed attachment as an important process with great social implications. The attachment styles are developed during childhood and tend to carry on through adulthood. The styles affect how the individual eventually relates to the rest of society. Bowlby noted that healthy adaptive attachment styles will serve as the base for interacting with the world outside of the parent-child relationship. There are significant social implications here as the tone is set for how the child may likely relate to the rest of the world, providing the foundation for how the child will view the self. Others who assist the primary caregiver in caring for the child may also contribute to the development of the child's attachment style (Bowlby, 1988).

Bowlby (1982) identified four different attachment styles that can be viewed as interrelated concepts of *safe haven, secure base, proximity maintenance,* and *separation.* The primary caregiver is the individual with whom the child learns the manner in which the child will explore the world and relate to those in it. The child's exploration of the world, the confidence with which exploration occurs, as well as how safety and security are called upon, develop according to which attachment style has formed (Bowlby, 1988).

In a safe haven, the child will seek out the attachment figure in the face of perceived danger (Bowlby, 1988). Crying is used as a form of communication by healthy children in an attempt to get their safety and security needs met. The child will discontinue the use of crying as a form of communication when it is realized that the

behavior is not successful in getting needs met (Faris & McCarroll, 2010). For example, the child may seek out the attachment figure after encountering an object or person who creates fear in the child. A child at a birthday party may run to the attachment figure as a direct result of encountering the clown who is performing in the middle of the circle of gathered children. To the child the clown may seem somewhat scary, and consequently the child retreats to the attachment figure for safety. If the child's attempt to seek comfort in the attachment figure is rebuffed, after repeated such experiences the child will cease to look toward the attachment figure. As the child grows older the use of the attachment figure as a safe haven is used less, and the child begins to view the attachment figure more as a secure base (Levesque, 2012).

Within a secure base the child will explore the world with the understanding that the attachment figure is going to be available should there be a need for protection from danger. A child whose first trip is to a museum may venture throughout the facility safely knowing the mother is in a location nearby. Bowlby (1982) indicated the child becomes aware the attachment figure will be available and is capable of responding to their needs if and when necessary. The child becomes confident in knowing the attachment figure will also offer help should a danger-filled or fear-filled situation present itself. Bowlby (1982) asserted that over time the child might also take the attachment figure for granted relying on the fact that safety and security is ever-present. However, should the attachment figure become unavailable the child's emotional stability might then become threatened (Bowlby, 1982).

Wong et al. (2011) showed that children's use of a caregiver as a secure base develop from a more sensory-motor basis to one that is cognitive in nature. As the child gets older, the ability to communicate needs and to seek out the caregiver in times of distress increases. The caregiver's understanding of the child's behaviors accords with the child's mental representation of the attachment relationship. The secure base is critical in the child's ability to learn the important task of emotional regulation.

Separation distress arises when the child become separated from the attachment figure (Bowlby, 1982). The departure of an attachment figure from a child at a day care facility may cause the child to cry for the return of the attachment figure. Bowlby likened the child's experience of separation distress to that of an adult in mourning (Bowlby, 1969). The child being left in a strange or unfamiliar environment serves to intensify the loss of the attachment figure (Leitenberg, 2013).

Variation in Caregivers

The nature of the interaction between parents and children and the nature of the interactions children expect to receive from others are positively correlated (Obegi & Berant, 2010). If the child readily has safety and security needs met by a primary caregiver, the child has a similar expectation of others with whom the child interacts. Bowlby (1982) reported that mothers want to nurture and keep children as safe and secure as possible. Bowlby (1982) agreed that the attachment bond formed between the mother and the child is as important to the child's survival as is the child's need for food. Such an attachment is the first to materialize and in comparison to the other attachment relationships to follow, is the strongest qualitatively (Bowlby, 1982).

With maturation attachment to specific others is visible (Bowlby, 2008). The infant grows older and the number of attachment figures increases to include other individuals such as fathers, siblings, as well as inanimate objects. For example, an infant might form an attachment bond with a favorite blanket that the child may tend to seek out as a source of comfort. Mikulincer and Shaver (2012) report that it is the quality of the attachment relationship, rather than the biological connections that is essential for healthy attachment development. The individual who attends playfully to and who engages in communication with the child is the individual with whom the child forms attachments. George, Cummings, and Davies (2010) asserted that primary caregivers include mothers as well as other individuals. Across cultures other figures or a combination of figures, serve as primary caregivers. Children have an innate need to form an attachment with primary caregivers for survival and whoever meets the need in a consistent manner the child forms attachment with that particular individual (George et al., 2010). Researchers highlight the idea of having healthy attachment bonds as a vital part of the child's development (George et al., 2010; Winston & Chicot, 2016). Based on George et al.'s suggestion, anyone capable of providing consistently to the safety and security needs of the child facilities the development of healthy attachment styles.

Describing Attachment Patterns

In the *strange situation* study, Ainsworth observed that active exploration of the environment prior to the attachment figure leaving the room occurred with children identified as *secure* (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). The children were warm and welcoming when the mother returned (Ramsauer et al., 2014). The children were also

able to return to the task of exploring the environment following the reunion with the attachment figure. The researchers reported that as the child explores, an attachment figure's ability to attend to the safety and security needs of the child is critical to the development of a secure parent-child bond. This is particularly true in situations in which the child experiences significant distress compared with situations in which it is minimal or no distress experienced. The child learns the caregiver will be there to protect as needed. Laurent et al. (2012) reported that in parent-child interactions in which both the parent and child are attuned to each other, the child's physiological stress indicators were noted to decrease when parent is present and available to help the child feel safe again. The caregiver's ability to attend to the needs of the child's influences the consistency of the child's attachment. The caregiver's presence continually strengthens the child's attachment bond as the child comes to rely more readily on the caregiver's presence (Zaccagnino, Cussino, Saunders, Jacobvitz, & Veglia, 2012).

In children whose attachment style was identified by Ainsworth as *anxious-resistant*, the children protested significantly and were notably distraught when the mother left (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). However, upon the mother's return the children continued to protest and were distressed even though they clearly wanted to be comforted. Bettman and Friedman (2012) reported the attachment figure was often inconsistent in either responding to the needs of the child, failing to respond, or being unavailable to the child. Additionally, the attachment figure often interfered with the child's exploration. The child would remain fixated on the attachment figure's availability most often to the exclusion of exploring the environment. This fixation is

created as the child attempts to decipher what is needed to gain and maintain a consistent response from the attachment figure.

In children whose attachment style was identified by Ainsworth as *anxious-avoidant*, the children were distressed being in an unfamiliar environment with an unfamiliar adult and demonstrated limited exploratory behaviors (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). The children were difficult to comfort and remained seemingly unaffected by a mother's departure or return (Pashler, 2013). Children with this type of attachment style do not seem to desire to maintain proximity to the attachment figure. Instead, the behavior demonstrates this manner of interaction is the only way the child knows how to maintain proximity to the attachment figure (Bettman & Friedman, 2012). The child wants to neither be away from nor be with the attachment figure. The mother in this particular attachment relationship demonstrated a limited response to the infant's distress. The infant eventually learns that needs are not going to be met and therefore does not engage in typical need-seeking behaviors such as crying or reaching out to the mother (Bettman & Friedman, 2012).

While the exploration and classification of the children observed in Ainsworth's *strange situation* provide an explanation and a categorization schema for a significant number of behaviors exhibited, there were some unexplained behaviors identified by other researchers who replicated Ainsworth's study. Main and Solomon (as cited in Greenberg, Cicchetti, & Cummings, 1990) indicated there is yet another attachment style whose characteristics do not neatly fit into the classifications established by Ainsworth in explaining the strange situation. A fourth category was therefore created to account for

children who exhibited contradictory behavior not indicative of a response to the environment at the time of observation.

In children with an attachment style described as disorganized, there was no clear explanation for the children's response (Main, 1996). Within the disorganized category, it was found children displayed a variety of behaviors from each of three previously identified categories (Muller, 2014). This fourth category is found primarily in children who have experienced maltreatment including physical, emotional, and sexual abuse, as well as neglect at the hands primary caregivers or attachment figures (Cyr, Euser, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & van IJzendoorn, 2010). The children experienced both fear as well as comfort and are unsure how to respond at any given time within interactions with the attachment figure (Muller, 2014).

The development of attachment styles impacts various areas of functioning including the ability to regulate affect, cope effectively in stressful situations, and to use social skills in an adaptive manner (Gore-Felton et al., 2012). There may be a tendency to place blame on parents being solely responsible for the nature of the attachment styles developed by children, but peers are a significantly important influence. Kalat and Shiota (2011) that suggested children who have developed an insecure relationship with parents can have secure relationships with peers. Adolescence is a period during which individuals typically move away from parents being their secure base to developing a secure base with peers.

The child's mood has a direct impact on the parent-child encounter (van IJzendoorn & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2012). The researchers noted the child's

temperament is positively correlated with the nature of parenting rendered by the caregiver. If the mother is sensitive to the child, the child's mood will be positive. The child's positive mood then creates a positive mood in the parent. The same is true for the process involving the continuation of a negative mood exchange between parent and child. There can also be ranking of the attachment figures when a child develops attachment relationships (Brown, Manglesdorf, & Neff, 2012). The child can develop a number of attachment figures within the family unit from mother to grandfather. Dependent upon the mood and the needs of the child, the attachment figure to which the child gravitates may change.

Jones, Brett, Ehrlich, Lejuez, and Cassidy (2014) examined how a caregiver's response to a child's negative mood affects the attachment relationship. The researchers noted that a parent's attachment style directly correlated with the manner in which the parent responded when the child experienced a negative emotion. The development of insecure attachment styles is created in response to the parent's inability to appropriately regulate emotionally and provide the child with the support needed.

In support of both attachment patterns and IWM between the child and the attachment figure, Shaefer and Kipp (2013) proposed individuals come to fall within combined four categories identified by Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters and Wall (1978) and Main and Solomon (as cited in Greenberg, Cicchetti, & Cummings, 1990). Children unconsciously pull from the IWM developed over time with significant caregiving others. A positive IWM of the self and others fits into the secure attachment category, while

those with a negative IWM of self and others tend to fall within the avoidant category (Murphy, 2012).

Development of Internal Working Models

Bowlby (2008) proffered that it is a child's natural inclination to explore the surrounding environment in close proximity to an attachment figure. The attachment figure serves as a source of safety and security (Eisenberger et al., 2011). The manner through which children view the responsiveness and availability of the attachment figure is an accurate representation of the nature of the attachment relationship. With continued healthy interactions, over time the child will begin to believe people with whom interactions take place are going to respond in similar ways (Carr, 2014).

Segrin and Flora (2014) indicated IWM are the foundation of attachment styles. The child gradually generalizes these working models when interacting with the outside world. The responses to the IWM also influence the child's view of self with regard to being worthy of safety and security (Taylor, 2010). For the child IWM develops over time with expectations of the availability, as well as accessibility of the caregiver. The process demonstrates how the child views the self and caregivers (Carr, 2014). The naturalistic interaction between child and caregiver plays a significant role in how the child will interact with the world, and the level of esteem and confidence the interaction will take place. The majority of interaction that children have is with their peers. As a result, although the primary caregiver is the initial base from which the child begins to form attachments, peer interactions are also significant and meaningful aspects of attachment relationships (Hoeve et al., 2012).

Much can be implied about the nature of development within a secure and insecure attachment relationship. The implications are based on what the child has learned about interacting with caregivers and has come to expect with each interaction. The expectations would include those interactions that are difficult to decipher. Additionally, in this type of scenario uncertainty has become the interaction norm between child and caregiver. The function of the models developed is associated with the particular self and others perspective that the individual adopts (Dykas & Cassidy, 2011).

A child whose parents have consistently satisfied safety and security needs is likely to develop a secure attachment style in the parent-child dyad (Dykas & Cassidy, 2011). This development after repeated confirmation becomes stable over time. The stability is of such an enduring nature that even if the parents falter in providing as they had provided previously, the child will retain the secure model (Dykas & Cassidy, 2011). The stability of the development occurs with both secure and insecure attachment styles.

Internal Working Models and the Environment

For the development of attachment styles, the environment in which the child grows is as important as the parent-child interaction (Sandstrom & Huerta, 2013). With a change in the family environment a child's expectation of attachment interactions, which were present prior, may be altered to fit the change. A child, whose parent has become seriously ill and unable to meet the child's needs in the same consistent manner as prior to the illness, may begin to reconstruct the IWM to fit the new patterns (McLeod, 2007). Additionally, in a study conducted by Hamilton (2000), the quality of the attachment developed during infancy was directly related to how the relationship is viewed during

adolescence. The attachment style developed by a child who grows up in an environment where there is instability because of continued parental SUD and associated behaviors is likely to continue into adolescence unless there is a change in the environment. The child adapts to the parent as substance use seeking behaviors intensify, and poorer quality of care is rendered (Calhoun, Conner, Miller, & Messina, 2015).

As adults, representations of childhood IWM are directly associated with parenting behaviors (Attili, Vermigli, & Roazzi, 2011). The IWM developed as a child is brought forth to current parent-child interactions. From benign environments involving financial difficulties and relocation to one in which there is parental divorce, abuse, or SUD, both factors affect attachment style development, continuity, and discontinuity (Cook & Littlefield-Cook, 2013). The environmental changes may be beyond the control of the individuals involved and how parents and children cope with the changes does influence the attachment style of the parent-child relationship.

In an environment with a securely attached parent-child relationship, the parent is able to communicate effectively with the child about issues such as financial difficulties, the need to relocate, or a parent illness. Recognizing the child as a valuable part of the family may help to maintain the connectedness created by the secure attachment style (Sandstrom & Huerta, 2013). Both parent and child work through emotions associated with the family issues in an adaptive manner. Giving the child permission to discuss thoughts and feelings associated with the environmental change allows the child to have an active role in what is happening within the family unit. The parent is able to respond to the cues from the child while also providing reassurance that things will reach a

resolution. The child is then able, depending on cognitive ability, to adjust accordingly with regard to expectations relating to the attachment relationship.

Conversely, in an environment with an insecurely attached parent-child relationship, the PH-SUD is not in tune with the cues from the child. The parent is not capable of accurately addressing the child's need for safety and security (Parolin & Simonelli, 2016). In such a situation, the child may be unsure about what is happening and feel an increased level of insecurity regarding the parent's ability to attend to needs for safety and security.

Maintenance of Internal Working Models

Despite such findings, there are no guarantees that a particular attachment style developed through infancy or in early childhood will predict the attachment style evidenced in late adolescence or adulthood (McConnell & Moss, 2011). A child, whose attachment relationship with a caregiver is secure, may not retain those patterns throughout childhood. IWM tend to remain inconsistent until the child is approximately five years old. However, the attachment experiences, which occur from birth to age five, do not necessarily affect the child in a permanent manner (Schooler, Smalley, & Callahan, 2014). The child's cognitive development is positively correlated with how he or she perceives interactions with the attachment figures. The child's perception of interaction begins to play an important role in how both the attachment relationship and the self are viewed (Verschueren, Doumen, & Evelien, 2012).

The experiences neither consistently serve as protective factors against negative experiences later, nor lead to a discontinuity of attachment style (van Ryzin, Carlson, &

Sroufe, 2011). As the child grows older, the perceptions become self-fulfilling prophecies about what to expect from others. In a consistent environment fostering the development of either, a secure or insecure attachment style the continuity of attachment style is maintained over time. It may be stated that with a more developed cognitive ability an adolescent's perception of the attachment style with PH-SUD may have changed compared to the perception during earlier years of development (Emery, 2013). For example, an adolescent's cognitive development may allow for a more accurate view of the attachment style that exists with a parent. The adolescent may be able to discern the inability of the parent to be emotionally present in the relationship may be related to the parent's focus on drugs. The adolescent may then cognitively stop yearning for an unattainable attachment bond with the parent.

Developed in childhood, IWM facilitate the interpersonal interaction with others. The interaction with others outside the realm of the immediate attachment figure also influences an individual's attachment behavior (Beijersbergen, Juffer, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & van IJzendoorn, 2012). A child develops IWM from ongoing interactions with others including teachers, neighbors, and peers. A child may live in an environment where the interaction with the attachment figure may fail to satisfy the child's safety and security needs. Over time, the child may get his or her needs satisfied by a teacher or a coach, someone who is consistently available. The teacher may have had experience living in such an environment and may make a conscious effort to be attuned to the child's needs.

An individual described as securely attached, may alter the nature of interaction with another person (teachers, neighbors, peers), whose behavioral responses are contrary to the individual's own. Despite the development of an IWM, the individual may make adjustments based on a specific interaction. For example, the IWM of an individual described as securely attached may be altered to accommodate another person's that is dissimilar (Simpson & Campbell, 2013). A child whose caregiver provides safety and security needs consistently may eventually come to learn not to expect the same from another person who fails to provide with the same consistency. Within a family where the PH-SUD begins the recovery process, the individual can learn adaptive interaction strategies. This ability to adapt may be viewed positively within a family.

Changing Internal Working Models

The attachment theory supposes an attachment style deemed insecure predisposes the individual to possible maladaptive patterns of attachment. Bergin and Bergin (2016) found that although IWM can change the process is difficult, as the individual will return to previous working model representations with which there is familiarity. The child will tend to behave in ways that help confirm the already established model. A child who has developed an insecure attachment style with a caregiver may struggle with altering the mental representations despite encountering new patterns of attachment that should serve to satisfy safety and security needs. The struggle exists despite the desire to be in an environment where there are possibilities of developing new working models. The child may crave needs satisfaction but is completely unfamiliar with how to respond to it.

The return to previous models is based on the difficulty encountered when replacing such a well-established internal representation, with one that is unfamiliar (Bergin & Bergin, 2016). The child removed from a home where the PH-SUD was deemed negligent might long to be back in the home as it is one of familiarity. In the home, the child knew what to expect and had learned to respond accordingly. The working model the child possesses is based on the familiar environment and the child may have no other model from which to draw. A child previously exposed to a particular type of attachment interaction may struggle when presented with an alternate attachment experience. However, in time the child can revise the IWM based on the ongoing new attachment interactions. The PH-SUD now in recovery may face initial hardship in making positive changes within the attachment relationship with the adolescent. However, with time and consistency the process can be successful (Wierson, 2012).

Crittenden and Ainsworth (as cited in Cicchetti & Carlson, 1989) reported that when a parent has a history of insecure attachment, some such parents might find difficulty attending to the needs of the child. The child's basic normal communication signals may be more than a parent with such a history can effectively manage. Crittenden and Ainsworth (as cited in Cicchetti & Carlson, 1989) caution that not all parents with secure attachments with children had secure childhood parental relationships. It is rather a demonstration that such parents are better able to recognize the negative impact of childhood attachment experiences and now make a conscious effort, to attend to the needs of their own child.

Joseph, O'Connor, Briskman, Maughan, and Scott (2014) indicated that children are far more resilient with regard to the characteristics of attachment provided proper intervention implementation. The researchers noted the children brought with them the insecure attachment relationship patterns established with birth parents into the relationship with foster parents. However, with time, consistency and maintaining focus remaining attuned to the adolescent's needs, the relationship between the foster parent and the adolescent evolved, thereby becoming secure.

Earned secure, a term coined by Main and Goldwyn (1998), occurs when children have developed insecure attachment styles because of maltreatment and are still able to overcome such experiences. Maltreatment may include physical, emotional, or sexual abuse, as well as neglect (CDC, 2014). As noted earlier the shift may be challenging as the child has formed mental representations of ongoing interactions and these new patterns are in contrast to previous patterns. Earned secure attachment occurs over time while successfully facilitating the replacement of old with new working models. Main and Goldwyn (1998) reported earned secure attachment is possible particularly with a previously supportive environment in which the child is able to discuss thoughts and feelings regarding the parent-child attachment relationship and the circumstances that defined the relationship.

As adults, the process of developing new IWM is likely to create the earned secure attachment as Main and Goldwyn (1998) described. In time, creating positive healthy attachment interactions and experiences would replace any maladaptive

framework previously established among affected African American and Black Caribbean adults.

Alcohol Use Between African American and Black Caribbean Adults

A search of the current literature yielded a single study about Black Caribbean adults and substance use. However, the lack of information about the group does not necessarily mean Black Caribbean adults did not participate in studies regarding this subject. Researcher McDaniel (2013) reported that African American and Black Caribbean adults use alcohol to a similar degree. The impact of socioeconomic struggles and racism are among the factors deemed to contribute to the seriousness at which alcohol impacts African American men compared to their Black Caribbean counterparts. McDaniel noted that there was no significant difference in use impact among women in the study, but noted that compared to Black Caribbean men, African American men the rate of alcohol use was higher.

In examining substance use in the African American population, Brody, Yu, Chen, Kogan, and Smith (2012) conducted a study focused on evaluating a program for young African American adults entering into adulthood. Brody et al. (2012) found it necessary to develop an intervention with the purpose of decreasing substance use among the participants. The researchers noted substance use among African Americans on the east coast of the United States where the study was conducted has been is linked to attempts at coping with poverty. Given the fact that the young adults struggle with finding meaningful employment after high school, substance, and in particular alcohol use, seem to become a coping mechanism.

Furthermore, the rate of alcohol use increased for African American young adults attending a college/university. A well-established alcohol use-promoting setting contributes to the escalation in use among members of the group (Desalu, 2016). In examining other factors related to African American college student alcohol use, Desalu reported that coping with the factors related to racial discrimination lends itself to the students' the use of alcohol. As McDaniel (2013) noted that in comparison to their White counterparts, African American adults drink alcohol to a lesser degree. Desalu (2016) found that one reason for the noted decrease is related to religiosity. According to (Desalu), African American college students who experienced low degrees of racial discrimination on school campuses demonstrated higher levels of religiosity. Conversely, college students with increased experiences with forms of discrimination exhibited lower levels of religiosity.

Weekes-Kanu (2013) conducted a study on the factors that contribute to alcohol use among Black Caribbean and African American adults. The researcher noted that being born in the Caribbean, the age the individual migrated to the United States, as well as their generational status all contribute to the alcohol use factor. Weeks-Kanu reported that individuals from Black Caribbean backgrounds born in the United States, and individuals who migrated to the United States at a younger age, are generally more at risk for SUD.

Specifically, Weekes-Kanu (2013) found that Black Caribbean immigrants had lower rates of alcohol use than Black Caribbean immigrants born in the United States did. The author suggested that in coping with factors such as financial stressors, Black

Caribbean adults tended to use alcohol less compared to the American-born counterparts. One reason for this difference is that although Black Caribbean immigrants may acknowledge similar financial difficulty, they tended to perceive their status in America as less financially challenging compared to when living in the Caribbean.

In explaining the lower rate of alcohol use among Black Caribbean adults, Rampersad (2016) found that acculturation and concerns about abiding by the more restrictive laws governing alcohol use in the United States contributed to individuals limited alcohol use. Rampersad explained that generally in the Caribbean culture alcohol use and socialization intertwine. Drinking with friends and relatives is a socially acceptable behavior. While drinking is expected and encouraged, drinking to excess is frowned upon greatly.

Among immigrants, the consequences for excessive drinking can be negatively linked to an individual's residential status. Additionally, it is likely that the social groups that exist for the individual in their country of origin is lacking in the United States. Consequently, it is prudent to be even more socially responsible with drinking choices (Rampersad, 2016).

African American, Black Caribbean, and Ethnicity

Ferguson, Iturbide, and Gordon (2014) in a quantitative study examined Jamaican immigrants' integration into American society, and the impact of integration on participants' emotional health. The researchers noted that Jamaicans have similar cultural experiences as African Americans with regard to slavery and discrimination and as a result will likely bond on the shared experiences. However, Jamaicans will initially tend

to socialize with other Jamaicans because of an in-group shared experience. Still Jamaicans also attempt to assimilate to the overall American culture, which includes European Americans.

Ferguson et al. (2014) noted that it is difficult for Jamaicans to assimilate into such a complicated mix of cultures. To avoid offending any member of other cultures, individuals attempting to balance among three cultures experience greater levels of emotional struggle than those who seek to balance between two or one culture (Ferguson et al., 2014). Unfortunately, however, the rate of mental health treatment seeking among Caribbean Blacks is significantly lower than that of African Americans.

The researchers caution those working with Black Caribbean immigrants who juggle three cultures as the intricacies in living with the merging backgrounds can be challenging for some people. Individuals helping to facilitate the process of immigrant and adaptive acculturation should offer specific messages regarding the process (Ferguson et al., 2014). Highlighting the positive aspects of assimilating while acknowledging the obstacles and identifying ways to address them are important parts of helping the individuals develop a sense of belonging. Black Caribbean adults can learn successful stress reduction associated with assimilation (Ferguson et al., 2014). The process can occur through individual empowerment and learning techniques and approaches regarding interaction with members of other cultures.

In a quantitative study, Sanchez (2013) examined racial and self-identification among Black Caribbean adults. The study further expands the conflict of existing in three different cultures: Black Caribbean, African American, and the general culture White

culture. Both African American and Black Caribbean culture reference the dominant White culture in formulating perspectives on assimilation. Sanchez (2013) indicated for most Black Caribbean adults, the experience of racial discrimination as experienced by African American is foreign. Instead, individuals of Black Caribbean backgrounds have experienced more within culture discrimination (Sanchez, 2013). Additionally, Black Caribbean adults tend to distance themselves from African Americans in certain situations. For example, Black Caribbean adults view African Americans as less driven with regard to education pursuits and overall work ethic (Sanchez, 2013).

Such differences in perspective play a significant role on how Black Caribbean adults self-identify (Sanchez, 2013). For example, in striving for assimilation and working toward attaining goal of economic security by way of attaining set education and employment goals, Black Caribbean adults often seek to disassociate from African Americans. The disassociation is based on the perception that African Americans are not viewed favorably.

In examining the complicated relationship among African American and Black Caribbean adults, Joseph, Watson, Wang, Case, and Hunter (2013) discussed the difference in approaches between first and second-generation Black Caribbean adults. While first generations seek to distance themselves from African Americans, second-generation Black Caribbean adults tend to gravitate toward African Americans. Joseph et al. (2013) reported the latter group views the association as a way to solidify an American identification. This study serves to highlight the subtle differences in lived experiences with regard to African American and Black Caribbean adults. In relating to romantic

attachment patterns, the generational differences in the degree of identification with African Americans speaks to the need for more closely examining each group of individuals separately. The influence of culture may have a significant impact on the way in which attachment is created for each group of people.

Joseph et al. (2013) noted that with increased experiences of racial discrimination, Black Caribbean adults might tend to feel more protected belonging to the group with whom they can most identify. Additionally, in such instances, Black Caribbean adults can seek solace among people with these shared experiences. The determining factor regarding association is related to levels of perceived stress and social perception. For example, group affiliation is associated with whichever yields decreased levels of stress. Additionally, the same is true for positive social perception.

Ferguson et al. (2014) reiterated my contention regarding the gap in research with respect to African Americans and Black Caribbean adults as separate groups of individuals. The researcher posited that in current literature, African American is an all-encompassing term often used to refer to individuals from varied cultural/ethnic backgrounds. Additionally, the researcher noted that significant group differences exist and an examination of the data can provide more accurate study results.

African American, Black Caribbean, and Romantic Attachment

In a study similar quantitative study conducted focused on African American adults and romantic attachment, researcher Ugoagwu (2012) noted that attachment is typically examined with White study participants. However, the researcher reiterated the fact that the variable of culture is an important one to consider as it might change the

outcome of research results when included as a factor. Unfortunately, like other researchers regarding the topic of ethnicity, Ugoagwu also failed to clarify whether or not the group in the study was purely African American or included Black Caribbean adults.

Researcher Underwood (2013) reported that African American adults have developed insecure romantic attachments because of the collective experience of slavery and the impact on the family unit. The factors which facilitate confidence in establishing a healthy attachment with a partner is lacking because of the residual effect of slavery practices which served as obstacle to establishing and maintaining romantic relationships. Additionally, the researcher indicated that socioeconomic factors also influence the decision to formulate a committed romantic relationship. African American women tend contemplate heavily the decision to be involved in a committed relationship/marriage because there is a fear of economic uncertainty should the relationship end.

Thompson (2014) also discussed the impact of slavery on the African American romantic relationship. The researcher highlighted the long-term impact of growing up in a household were there are well-established beliefs about meaning of romantic relationship. Factors such as gender role and economic difficulties influence the degree to which African American males seek to marry, and African American women to feel comfortable in a marriage. Thompson noted that both men and women in this group elect to cohabitate instead.

Thompson (2014) found that study participants had developed specific ideas of romantic relationship because of observing parental relationship practice. The process

often created significant concerns about the factors that seem to contribute to the perception of parental romantic relationship, both positively and negatively.

Haste-Jackson (2013) conducted a study regarding the factors affecting romantic relationship among African American women. The research highlighted historical elements that serve to both enrich and take away from the development of unions. Within the African American community, Haste-Jackson (2013) indicated that women and men traditionally do not trust each other as it relates to romantic commitment. Societal established representations of the African American woman as filled with anger and unreasonableness and the African American man as untrustworthy and unreliable contribute to the hesitation regarding pursuit of a long-term monogamous relationship.

Springle (2014) noted that African American women and men equated trust with fidelity and being able to rely on one's mate. African American women paradoxically noted that trust should not be readily given as a way to prevent betrayal within the relationship. African American men in Springle study viewed relationships are transitory and as such, commitments and promises need not be made because the relationship would not last. Additionally, the men strongly believed that they could not depend on their significant other.

Although a number of studies (Haste-Jackson, 2013; Springle, 2014; Thompson, 2014; Ugoagwu, 2012; Underwood, 2013) highlight important factors that may influence romantic attachment among African American study participants, the researchers also failed to define or distinguish between African American and Black Caribbean adults. As in the United States, Black Caribbean experienced slavery. Documenting the specific

impact of the phenomenon on the collective romantic attachment among Black Caribbean adults would highlight any differences or similarities between the two groups.

The researcher found only a limited amount of available research that examines romantic relationship among Black Caribbean adults. In fact, in completing a search of the terms “Black Caribbean” and “romantic attachment,” the majority of the peer-reviewed articles within the results focused on topics such as slavery, literature, and migration. Fortunately, I was able to read one peer-reviewed article that discussed Black Caribbean adults and relationships. In a study conducted by Brathwaite (2010), the researcher asserted societal norms and expectations dedicate that women serve as the nurturer in her relationship, working diligently to ensure she meets the needs and expectations of her significant other. Brathwaite noted that if a woman is dissatisfied with specific aspects of her relationship, she is more likely to attribute it to personal failings.

Interestingly, Brathwaite (2010) found that Black Caribbean women with education beyond high school were more likely to voice opinions about relationship dissatisfaction than less educated Black Caribbean women with similar demographic would. The women in the former category may not feel confined by the fear of financial loss and more willing to challenge the status quo of a relationship that may no longer be fulfilling. Additionally, the more educated women may be willing to work through the challenges in the relationship rather than avoid addressing relationship issues.

As with Black Caribbean women, African American women interact in their romantic relationship based on societally established “scripts” which dictate a specific set of standards. According to Springle (2014), the standards serve to ensure the longevity of

a relationship. The scripts for African American women include completing domestic tasks and accepting emotional disconnectedness, as well as cheating even when the woman does not want to do so. Springle postulated that while an African American woman may want to process conflict within the relationship, an African American man typically avoids addressing the issue. As a part of the script, the African American man's reluctance to stand with his partner is centered on the desire not to witness her emotional state.

Bowlby's Theory as Evidentially Supported

After reviewing the existing literature, Bowlby's stance on the formation of attachment bonds has significant social implications, is the most logically developed, and data-supported theory to use for this current study. Attachment patterns are generational in nature, and with insecure attachment patterns, as with secure attachment patterns, the pattern is maintained barring external interventions.

African American and Black Caribbean young adults can take specific steps toward developing new secure romantic attachment patterns based on newly created internal models. The new experiences may have far-reaching effects on people with whom the aforementioned adults interact. The process may be challenging to implement, but within a supportive encouraging environment, change is possible (Joseph et al., 2014). The young adults will then slowly replace previous maladaptive models with healthy ones. In romantic relationships, the new interactions predict future interaction.

With the new representative model, a secure attachment can be developed. The development of new patterns of interaction can, if continued, then successfully break the

intergenerational cycle of maladaptive patterns previously created (Joseph et al., 2014). The adaptive patterns formed may serve to provide the adult with needs satisfaction. The craving for needs satisfaction may then be fulfilled, as an essential part of the individual's very survival, as noted by Bowlby (1982).

Summary

The role of attachment and caregiver has been well documented in research. Both Bowlby and Ainsworth have indicated that the nature of attachment styles between the attachment figure and the child sets the foundation for subsequent patterns of attachment. Patterns of interaction can be either secure or insecure depending on the caregiver attunement level with the child's needs. It is noted IWM remain relatively stable over time, barring deliberate intervention. However, the individual can elect to alter a primary IWM to fit the interaction of a person who presents a model contrary to the individual's own.

Although there is caution to avoid a causal stance on the phenomenon, SUD amongst parents has been shown to be associated with insecure attachment patterns. Often PH-SUD are products of a childhood environment where the caregiver may have failed in consistently meet the safety and security needs of the child. The failure may be linked to the parent's SUD. The intergenerational nature of both SUD and attachment styles speak to the urgency with which steps can be taken to address the impact on certain members of the population. Researchers have determined that early IWM of romantic attachment forms the perspective with which all adults view romantic relationships. Researchers have examined the impact of early representations of romantic attachment

with a general approach. However, romantic attachment patterns among African American and Black Caribbean has not been specifically explored in current literature.

The current study sought to bridge the gap in research by examining the interaction among ethnicity, alcohol use, and attachment. As noted previously, there is a significant amount of literature available on attachment and substance use. Still, there is no documented study, which includes African American and Black Caribbean with any specificity. Based on the outcome of this study, future researchers may want to look more closely at answering questions related to the degree to which the variables being studied determined a particular attachment style.

In Chapter 3, the use of a quantitative methods approach was used to examine the interaction between alcohol use, ethnicity and attachment among African American and Black Caribbean young adults. An explanation regarding the decision to select the method and ethical concerns regarding study participants was detailed. I used statistical information about the independent variables of alcohol use and ethnicity, and attachment as the dependent variable to answer hypothesis questions.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

The purpose of this research project was to determine the relationship of ethnicity and alcohol use to anxious and avoidant attachment patterns. The dependent variables were analyzed concurrently as a combined set using a 2x3 factorial MANOVA, as they are both measures of romantic attachment. Following a review of the current literature in Chapter 2, the present chapter covers the methodology portion of the study. First, I explain and justify the research design. Next, I describe the population, sample, and sampling strategy. Following this, I discuss procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection. I provide the instrumentation followed by an operationalization of each variable. The data analysis plan follows. I identify threats to the validity of the study along with any ethical considerations. The final section includes a summary of significant aspects of the chapter and an introduction to the results portion of the project.

Research Design and Rationale

In this quantitative nonexperimental, survey-based study, participants included African American or Black Caribbean adult males. The independent variables were ethnicity and alcohol use. Ethnicity had two categories, African American and Black Caribbean. Alcohol use had three categories, no alcohol use, moderate alcohol use, and heavy alcohol use. The dependent variables were anxious attachment and avoidant attachment.

In contrast to the selected quantitative methodology, a qualitative method is a subjective approach to describe and provide meaning to life experiences of interest to a researcher; it is unstructured and as a result may lead the researcher to explore open-

ended inquiries about subtopics that arise during the interview process (Creswell, 2014). In-depth interviewing about the interaction between attachment, alcohol use, and ethnicity from study participants would provide a significant amount of individual details. As the researcher, I would then interpret the data collected from the participants and organize it according to themes, which require subjective judgment. I selected a quantitative methodology because of the method's objectivity, expedience, cost-effectiveness, and usefulness to achieving statistically verifiable results. The issue of expedience for a first-time research student was important as it allowed for study completion in a timelier manner when compared to a quantitative method approach.

Unlike the qualitative approach, a quantitative method is an objective, structured way to answer a research question (Creswell, 2014). It is an examination of the relationship between variables. The variables can be measured numerically and analyzed statistically. For example, the data collected from a survey, such as the one used in this study, will yield numeric outcomes, which can then be analyzed statistically.

Both the qualitative and quantitative methods have strengths unique to each approach. Mixed method research combines beneficial aspects of the quantitative and qualitative approaches (Creswell, 2014). The combination of the two other approaches effectively minimizes the limitations inherent to both. Such limitations include the fact that a quantitative approach relies on the participant's understanding of the survey questions and the limited choices from which the participant has to select a response. Conversely, in the qualitative approach, analysis and interpretation is time-consuming and can be influenced by the researcher's personal bias.

Schutt (2015) reported that although the mixed method approach would provide well-rounded picture of the research question, the process requires expert knowledge about combining the information yielded from the qualitative and quantitative methods.

Experimental research is typically conducted in a laboratory setting and is used to establish causation with regard to the variables in question (Price, 2012). In a nonexperimental approach, research is conducted using natural, preexisting groups, and does not involve variable manipulation. The decision to select experimental or nonexperimental depends on whether it is ethical, possible, and reasonable to manipulate the variables (Price, 2012). The goal of this study was not to identify any causal relationship between attachment, ethnicity, and alcohol use, but rather to examine the interactions between the variables. As such, a nonexperimental approach was the appropriate approach.

The research variables pursued in this study were appropriate for use in survey research, a design strategy that can advance psychology literature (Price, 2012). Ideally, the goal of a quantitative method is to obtain results that can be generalized to a larger population (Creswell, 2014). Although no definitive cause and effect statement is possible, the technique of survey research sets the stage for more in-depth studies subsequent researchers can conduct. Likewise, survey research facilitates gathering a significant amount of information from a large number of individuals in an expedient manner. Since the 1980s, the data derived from surveys has added valuable information to the body of research in psychology literature (Price, 2012).

Methodology

Population

In this study, the target population was adult African-American and Black Caribbean males who had been in a romantic relationship for at least 1 year. To be considered for inclusion in the study, potential participants in this research study were required to meet the following inclusion criteria: (a) male (b) 18 years and older, (c) African American or Black Caribbean (Haitian, Jamaican, and Bahamian (d) currently in or have been in a romantic relationship for at least 1 year. Exclusion criteria included anyone not of the specified ethnic background and anyone who had not been in a romantic relationship for at least 1 year.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

The sample was drawn from the pool of adult male Facebook users. I used a convenience sample for participants in the study. Although the method may limit the external validity of this study, it is cost-effective and allows the data collection process to occur quickly (Rogleberg, 2016). Grove, Gray, and Burns (2014) noted the approach is less time consuming in comparison to other data collection methods. Unlike a semistructured interview in a qualitative study, for example, survey questionnaires take considerably less time to administer. Although ideal for this project, the use of convenience sampling is not without controversy in psychology literature. Research supports the conclusion of convenience sampling as prone to researcher bias (Mellinger & Hanson, 2016). A systematic review included in the process of research procedures helps to minimize the possibility of incorporating personal bias in the study. Bornstein,

Jager, and Putnik (2013) strongly discouraged linking results immediately to the entire target population.

Given the target population of Black/African American males, I assumed the recruitment process might be challenging, but I recognized its importance in the context of adding to the attachment research. The difficulty is likely as a result of the Tuskegee Experiment, which occurred between 1932 and 1972. In the study, African American men where intentionally infected with syphilis in an effort for researchers to observe the progression of the virus when left untreated (Jones, 1981). More recent data supports the fact that historically, as a result of the infamous experiment, Black/African American individuals are hesitant to participate in research studies. In particular, males are skeptical that the data gathered will not be used to create a negative portrayal of them.

Current research validated the use of social media as an effective means to gather survey data from individuals who might otherwise be difficult to engage (Ramo & Prochaska, 2012). Consequently, I decided to draw the sample for this study from among adult male Facebook users. In examining user patterns, the current literature indicated that both Jamaica and the Bahamas are among the top five English-speaking countries represented on the social media site. Haiti ranked third among social Caribbean countries (Riley, 2013).

In establishing participant guidelines for the project, the potential sampling frame was African American and Black Caribbean adult males in a romantic relationship for at least 1 year. The exclusion criteria are any individual not of the cultural backgrounds

identified as a part of this study, and who have not been in a romantic relationship for at least 1 year.

G*Power, a sample size and power calculator developed by Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner and Lang (2008), was used to calculate an appropriate sample size needed for this study. Cohen (1988) indicated that an acceptable level of power is .80, and that when there is not much support in the literature, a medium effect size can be used to calculate a sample size. An alpha of .05 is a standard cutoff used to balance the rate of Type I and Type II errors, which are the possibilities of making a "false positive" or "false negative" conclusion (Field, 2013). In this study I used a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). For a MANOVA with six groups, two response variables, an alpha of .05, a power of .80, and a medium effect size, the required sample size would be 138 participants.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Participant recruitment took place via Facebook. I posted the recruitment flyer information on my personal Facebook page, providing a brief description of the purpose of the post. I requested that visitors to my page share the link to my survey on their personal Facebook share. In doing so, I hoped to acquire as many volunteers as possible. According to the data, users are typically engaged on the site as a leisure activity.

The participant recruitment flyer contained a link to a SurveyMonkey website. SurveyMonkey is a free survey-hosting service that allows you to upload surveys to the internet, allowing anybody with the website link and the proper inclusion criteria to take the survey. Interested participants were invited to access this website. After following this

link, participants were taken to a welcome page. This page described the intent of the study. An informed consent document was included as a part of information regarding the study. The consent form detailed the voluntary nature of the study and participants' rights and confidentiality. My contact information was included on the informed consent as well as the recruitment flyer so that participants could ask questions if they had any need. Participants were notified that by continuing on to the rest of the survey, they were indicating that they understand the content and their rights, and they were providing their informed consent to the study. Continuing on to the demographic section, participants were asked about their race/ethnicity, and relationship history. The participants were also asked questions related to their family and personal alcohol use history. SurveyMonkey has the functionality to exclude any participant who provides certain answers to certain questions; if any participant provides answers that indicate that they do not meet inclusion criteria, they were thanked for their participation so far and excluded from the rest of the survey. Following these demographic questions, the Experience in Close Relationship-Short Form (ECR-S) was administered (Wei et al., 2007). After completing this survey, participants were taken to an exit page where they were thanked for their participation and once again given my contact information if they had any questions. At this point, no further participation was required from the participants.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Variables

Demographic questionnaire. This contained questions that identified the participant's race/ethnicity, age, gender, relationship status, and alcohol use history. A copy of can be found in Appendix B**.** The questions relating to alcohol use were based on

guidelines provided by the SAMHSA (2015). Although this was not a psychometrically validated questionnaire on alcohol use, the demographic questions pertaining to alcohol use were designed to collect concrete information that is not intended to represent any particular conceptual construct. According to the SAMHSA (2015), moderate drinking is up to one drink daily for women. For men, moderate drinking is to two drinks daily. Heavy alcohol intake is five or more beverages in one sitting. The alcohol intake must occur each day for at least 5 days within the past 30 days. Based on current literature, the typical alcohol drink is noted as a 12 oz. beer, 5 oz. glass of wine, or 1.5 oz. shot of hard alcohol (Connell et al., 2015; Mallet et al., 2014; Wells et al., 2015).

Krumpal (2013) noted survey participants are typically unreliable with providing accurate information regarding socially taboo topics. Such forbidden topics include illicit substance use. Furthermore, a participant's reservation about negative perceptions can influence honesty when responding to questionnaire items. To facilitate truthful participant answers, I excluded illicit substances, such as marijuana, hallucinogens, and opioids from this current research.

Experience in Close Relationships-Short Form (ECR-S). This is a questionnaire designed by Wei et al. (2007) to measure two patterns of attachment in adult relationships: anxiety and avoidance. This scale is appropriate for the current study as it measures patterns of attachment, which was used as the dependent variables of the current study. The first subscale, anxiety, refers to concerns of rejection or abandonment by the other person in the relationship, including an increased need for partner approval (Wei et al., 2007). A sample item on the anxiety scale is "I worry that romantic partners

won't care about me as much as I care about them." Avoidance, which is the second subscale, refers to a fear of depending on one's partner and developing intimacy on an interpersonal level, with an increased need for being able to function independently (Wei et al., 2007). A sample item on the avoidance scale includes, "I try to avoid getting too close to my partner."

This 12-item short form of the ECR is derived from Brennan, Clark, and Shaver's original 36-item measure (as cited in Simpson & Rholes, 1998). The short form was created by Wei et al. (2007) because the original measure was lengthy. The researchers concluded that because the questionnaire was geared toward college students, the target population might grow disinterested in completing such a lengthy document. The researchers conducted several studies with the intent to verify reliability and validity of the shortened scale (Wei et al., 2007). Participants rate each question on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Lower scores indicate a more secure (i.e., less anxious or less avoidant) attachment pattern. There are no specific cut-off points to categorize scores for either subscale (M. Wei, personal communication, June 24, 2016). For each subscale, a mean composite score was created from the relevant items, resulting in a possible score ranging from one to seven. Negatively worded items were reverse coded appropriately. Permission to use this scale was granted (see Appendix A).

Validity. The items contained in this questionnaire are consistent with adult attachment theorists' constructs of attachment avoidance and anxiety, such as Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (as cited in Simpson & Rholes, 1998), and Mikulincer, Shaver, and

Pereg (2003). Construct validity was confirmed through significant correlations with other measures of the same construct (r = .47 and above; Wei et al., 2007).

Reliability. Wei et al. (2007) report that coefficient alphas were .78 for the anxiety subscale and .84 for the avoidance subscale. According to George and Mallery (2016), alphas above .70 indicate acceptable reliability and alphas above .80 indicate good reliability. Test re-test reliability over one month was r = .80 and r = .83 for each subscale respectively, indicating high test-retest reliability (Wei et al., 2007). All reliability and validity measures were established using a college student population.

Operationalization. This study will use two independent variables—ethnicity and alcohol use. This study will also involve two dependent variables—anxious attachment and avoidant attachment. Each variable is operationalized in the following section.

Ethnicity. This is a participant's ethnic background. This is a categorical independent variable consisting of two groups: *African-American* and *Black Caribbean.* Data for this variable will come from the demographic questionnaire.

Alcohol use. This is the amount of alcohol a participant intakes. This is a categorical independent variable consisting of three groups: *no alcohol use, moderate alcohol use,* and *heavy alcohol use*. Data for this variable comes from questions on the demographic questionnaire, based on SAMSHA (2015) guidelines.

Anxious attachment. This is a participant's level of anxious romantic attachment. This is a continuous dependent variable ranging from one to seven, with higher scores indicating a greater anxious attachment. Data for this variable comes from the ECR-S. A

mean composite score to represent this variable was created from the relevant ECR-S items, an example of which is “I worry that romantic partners won’t care about me as much as I care about them.”

Avoidance attachment. This is a participant’s level of avoidant romantic attachment. This is a continuous dependent variable with scores ranging from one to seven, where higher scores indicate more avoidant attachment. Data for this variable comes from the ECR-S. A mean composite score to represent this variable was created from the relevant ECR-S items, an example of which is “I try to avoid getting too close to my partner.”

Data Analysis

Once data was collected, I imported it into IBM’s Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). SPSS was used for all data management and analysis. First, data was assessed for significant missing cases (> 50%) and outliers. Outliers were defined according to guidelines set forth by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), where standardized values greater than ± 3.29 are indicative of outliers. Outliers and substantive missing cases were removed. Then, descriptive statistics were reported. Means and standard deviations were reported for continuous variables, such as age. Frequencies and percentages were reported for categorical variables, such as gender. The data was then analyzed as described below.

RQ: Do anxious attachment and avoidant attachment differ across ethnicity and alcohol use patterns among African-American and Black Caribbean adult males?

$H_0$1: Ethnicity does not have a significant effect on anxious attachment and avoidant attachment.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_a1). Ethnicity has a significant effect on anxious attachment and avoidant attachment.

$H_0$2: Alcohol use does not have a significant effect on anxious attachment and avoidant attachment.

H_a2: Alcohol use does have a significant effect on anxious attachment and avoidant attachment.

$H_0$3: Ethnicity and alcohol use do not significantly interact to influence anxious attachment and avoidant attachment.

H_a3: Ethnicity and alcohol use do significant interact to influence anxious attachment and avoidant attachment.

In order to answer this research question, a 2 x 3 MANOVA was performed. For this analysis, the independent variables were ethnicity and alcohol use, which have two and three levels, respectively. The levels of ethnicity were *African-American* and *Black Caribbean*. The levels of alcohol use were *no alcohol use, moderate alcohol use*, and *heavy alcohol use*. The dependent variables were anxious attachment and avoidant attachment, which are continuous, ratio-level variables.

The MANOVA is an appropriate analysis to use when assessing two or more group differences on two or more dependent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Specifically, the MANOVA was selected to test the hypotheses that the independent variables may have an individual or interactive effect on the combined set of dependent

variables. It was a possibility to treat the dependent variables as completely separate, and in doing so perform two separate analyses of variances (ANOVAs). However, the dependent variables are both measures of romantic attachment, using the same instrument. While they are separate constructs, and cannot be combined to form a total romantic attachment score (Wei et al., 2007), it is expected that they are somewhat correlated—lower scores on either construct indicates a healthier, more secure attachment style (Wei et al., 2007). In other words, a low avoidance score would indicate secure attachment, and a secure attachment would correspond to a low anxious score. As they are related in such a manner, it was deemed appropriate to enter them into a MANOVA to create a linear combination of the dependent variables. Additionally, performing a MANOVA, rather than the possible two ANOVAs, controls for the inflated risk of Type I error associated with multiple hypothesis testing that would occur if two separate analyses were performed (Stevens, 2009).

Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumptions of the MANOVA were assessed. The MANOVA operates under the assumptions of normality, homogeneity of variance and homogeneity of covariance. Normality assumes that the data take on a generally bell-shaped normal curve, and was assessed using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Stevens, 2009). It should be noted that the MANOVA (and the *F* statistic in general) is quite robust against violations of the normality assumption; violations do not increase Type I error, but merely reduce the power of the analysis (Stevens, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Generally, when sample sizes are greater than 30, violations of this assumption are not problematic (Howell, 2013; Pallant, 2013). Homogeneity of variances assumes that

the groups have similar error variances, and homogeneity of covariances is the multivariate version of this assumption; these assumptions were tested using Levene's and Box's M tests, respectively (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The MANOVA first creates a linear combination of both dependent variables, which is assessed using the *F* statistic (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). If the *p* value associated with this statistic is .05 or less, then that suggests there are significant differences in the combination of dependent variables between groups. The *p* values associated with the multivariate analysis between ethnicity and the combined set of dependent variables, between alcohol use and the combined set of dependent variables, and the interaction between ethnicity and alcohol use and the combined set of dependent variables were assessed. If overall significance were found through these multivariate tests, the ANOVAs performed as part of the MANOVA procedure would be interpreted in order to understand the nature of these differences (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The between-subjects effects of each independent variable on each dependent variable separately, as well as the interaction between the independent variables, were assessed for significance. If the *p* value associated with each ANOVA were significant, the nature of these differences would examined. For ethnicity, which only has two levels, the means of each level were compared. For alcohol use, which has three levels, pairwise comparisons using the Bonferroni correction were made in order to determine where exactly the possible differences lie.

Threats to Validity

Two types of research validity can be threatened: internal and external. Internal validity refers to how trustworthy inferences made from the study's data can be, while external validity refers to how well these inferences can be generalized beyond the study (Creswell, 2014). Usually, threats to internal validity occur during experimental designs (such as maturation or testing effects). Threats to the internal validity of this non-experimental study may occur if there is communication between participants before or during the project, which could influence their responses to the surveys. To control for this specific threat, participants were asked not to discuss the contents of the study. More generally, threats to internal validity were controlled by utilizing the appropriate data cleaning and assumption testing techniques described in the data analysis plan.

Threats to external validity include selection bias. This is usually controlled for using random assignment (Creswell, 2014). This is a specific threat to this study, as random assignment cannot be performed. Volunteer bias is another possible threat to the external validity of this study, in which the specific characteristics of the participants willing to volunteer for the study may be enough to separate them from the target population (Creswell, 2014). More generally, threats to external validity occur when improper generalizations are made (Creswell, 2014). In order to control for this, generalizations were only made to the populations under study.

For example, conclusions reached from data analysis are not applicable to all individuals in similar circumstances elsewhere in the state of Florida. However, the results may be similar if conducted in a different location with similar issues. A possible

threat to validity in this study may be that other individuals meet the study criteria, but do not have the same experiences as the participants in the current study.

Ethical Procedures

As a rule, ethically based research procedures are vital to the research process. Limited access to research data safeguards the project's integrity. Researchers must maintain the safety of participants throughout a research project. To guard against human rights violations, maintaining federal regulations about research standards is critical. The government guidelines are designed to prevent the use of procedures deemed unethical or detrimental to study volunteers (Creswell, 2014).

Walden's Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed all aspects of this current research study prior to actual data collection. The board members granted approval of the investigation once satisfied the project posed no risk to individuals. The approval number was 03-08-18-0110603. It was not expected that this project could cause undue discomfort for the participants. Additionally, the IRB examined a drafted informed consent document detailing each aspect of the participants' role in the study. The goal was to ensure volunteers had a complete grasp of the agreement. As explained in the informed consent, participants could withdraw from the study at any time. A participant's choice to withdraw may occur without explanation. Furthermore, no negative repercussions exist for electing to opt out. No identifying information about the participants, such as their name, was recorded. All data was kept on a secure, password protected computer. This data will be electronically destroyed after a period of five years after the study's conclusion.

Summary

Chapter 3 included highlights of the research methodology for this project. The proposed study used a quantitative methodology with a nonexperimental design and a survey approach. The proposed independent variables were ethnicity and alcohol use. The proposed dependent variables were anxious attachment and avoidant attachment. The instrumentation used for the proposed study is the ECR-S, which measured data used for the dependent variables, and a demographic questionnaire, which measured data used for the independent variables. A MANOVA was used to answer the research question. The analysis of the data collection is reviewed in the subsequent chapter.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine the effect of ethnicity and alcohol use on anxious and avoidant attachment patterns among adult males. Past research has indicated that both attachment patterns (Shah, Fonagy, & Strathearn, 2011) and substance use are transgenerational (Straussner & Fewell, 2011), and without interventions, the patterns continue over time (McConnell & Moss, 2011; NIDA, 2010). Although there was no demonstrable causal factor between substance use and maladaptive attachment patterns, past research has revealed a possible association between substance use and insecure attachment patterns (Borhani, 2013).

The independent variables in this study were ethnicity and alcohol use, while the dependent variables were anxious attachment and avoidant attachment. The RQ was: Do anxious attachment and avoidant attachment differ across ethnicity and alcohol use patterns among African-American and Black Caribbean adult males?

In evaluating the study question, the first null hypothesis presented was that ethnicity does not have a significant effect on anxious and avoidant attachment as measured by the ECR. If the effect of ethnicity on anxious and avoidant attachment was not found to be statistically significant, the null hypothesis would be accepted. However, if ethnicity had shown to have a significant effect on anxious and avoidant attachment, the null hypothesis would be rejected. The research question was evaluated using the 2x3 MANOVA.

The second null hypothesis was also evaluated using the MANOVA. The hypothesis was that alcohol use had no significant effect on anxious and avoidant

attachment as measured by the ECR. If the effect of alcohol use on anxious and avoidant attachment was not found to be statistically significant, the null hypothesis would be accepted. However, if the data revealed significance, then the null hypothesis would be rejected.

Using the MANOVA to evaluate the final hypothesis, it would be rejected if ethnicity and alcohol use were found to not significantly interact with anxious and avoidant attachment as measured by the ECR. However, if the analysis demonstrated significant interaction, the null hypothesis would be rejected.

In Chapter 4, I review the data collection process in detail, including a description of the demographic characteristics of the sample. Additionally, I present my statistical findings and answer the research question. A summary concludes the chapter.

Data Collection

The Walden IRB granted approval for this study on March 8, 2018. The data collection process began shortly thereafter. The initial population was adult male students at a local university. The inclusion criteria were that the participants were African American and Black Caribbean adult males and that they been in a romantic relationship for at least 1 year. The SurveyMonkey tool was set up in such a way that any participant who did not meet the criteria was automatically excluded from the sample.

The response rate was consistently low. As such, I requested and was granted a change in procedure through Walden's IRB. I conducted further recruitment via Facebook. I placed the recruitment flyer on my personal Facebook page and requested that friends share the link on their own pages. I also requested that Facebook users who

were members of Black Educators Rock-Florida (South) post the link to the survey on the organization's Facebook page. At the end of data collection, I was able to surpass the required sample size of 138 participants suggested by a G*Power calculation for a total of 190 participants. The actual data collection lasted a total of 4 weeks.

Pre-Analysis Data Cleaning

Before beginning the analysis, I examined the data set for missing cases. Of the 190 participant responses, I removed a total of 39 cases because of missing data. I assessed the data for outliers using a criterion of ± 3.29 standard deviations from the mean on continuous variables, as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013). No outliers were present in the dataset. Therefore, the final analysis for the study included a sample of 151 participants.

Table 1

Frequency Table for Demographic Variables

Variables	*n*	%
What is your age group?		
18 to 20	20	13.25
21 to 23	23	15.23
24 to 26	25	16.56
27+	83	54.97
Missing	0	0.00
Have you graduated from college?		
Yes	101	66.89
No	50	33.11
Missing	0	0.00
What is your ethnicity?		
African American	71	47.02
Bahamian	5	3.31
Haitian	30	19.87
Jamaican	45	29.80
Missing	0	0.00
What is your relationship status?		
Single	44	29.14
Dating	52	34.44
Married	55	36.42
Missing	0	0.00
If born in the Bahamas, Haiti, or Jamaica, indicate if you lived in the country until at least age 15		
No	44	29.14
Yes	50	33.11
Missing	57	37.75
If you are dating married or in some other type of relationship, what is the other partner's race or ethnicity?		
Black	59	39.07
White	28	18.54
African American	55	36.42
Native American	1	0.66
Asian	2	1.33
Pacific Islander	3	1.99
Missing	3	1.99

Note. Due to rounding errors, percentages may not equal 100%.

Table 1 presents information regarding participants' demographics. Adults 27 years and older were the most represented in the sample (*n* = 83, 55%); 101 (67 %) of the individuals reported being college graduates. Table 1 provides information about participants' ethnicity, relationship status, and related information. Just under half of the sample consisted of African Americans (*n* = 71, 47%). The largest percentages of participants were either dating (*n* = 52, 34%) or married (*n* = 55, 36%). Almost a third of the sample were born in the Bahamas, Haiti, or Jamaica, and lived there until the age of 15 (*n* = 50, 33%). The largest percentage of participants' partners were Black (*n* = 59, 29%) or African American (*n* = 55, 36%).

Table 2

Frequency Table for Self and Familial Drinking Patterns

Variable	*n*	%
Alcohol use		
No use	17	11.26
Moderate use	108	71.52
Heavy use	26	17.22
Missing	0	0.00
Paternal grandmother's drinking behavior		
Never drank	54	35.76
Social drinker	58	38.41
Possible problem drinker	15	9.93
Definite problem drinker	4	2.65
No relatives	1	0.66
Do not know or do not remember	18	11.92
Missing	1	0.66
Maternal grandmother drinking behavior		
Never drank	52	34.44
Social drinker	78	51.66
Possible problem drinker	6	3.97
Definite problem drinker	2	1.32
No relatives	1	0.66
Do not know or do not remember	12	7.95
Missing	0	0.00
Paternal grandfather drinking behavior		
Never drank	15	9.93
Social drinker	77	50.99
Possible problem drinker	24	15.89
Definite problem drinker	6	3.97
No relatives	1	0.66
Do not know or do not remember	28	18.54
Maternal grandfather drinking behavior		
Never drank	23	15.23
Social drinker	76	50.33
Possible problem drinker	20	13.25
Definite problem drinker	11	7.28
No relatives	0	0.0
Do not know or do not remember	20	13.25
Missing	1	0.66
Father drinking behavior		
Never drank	6	3.97
Social drinker	79	52.32
Possible problem drinker	49	32.45
Definite problem drinker	11	7.28
No relatives	3	1.99
Do not know or do not remember	2	1.32
Missing	1	0.66
Mother drinking behavior		
Never drank	33	21.85
Social drinker	86	56.95
Possible problem drinker	21	13.91
Definite problem drinker	7	4.64
No relatives	2	1.32
Do not know or do not remember	1	0.66
Missing	1	0.66

Note. Due to rounding errors, percentages may not equal 100%.

Table 2 presents more information on participants' familial drinking patterns. Of those who reported their father's drinking behavior, more than half classified their father as a social drinker (*n* = 79, 52%). More than half also classified their mother as a social drinker (*n* = 86, 57%). Table 2 presents further information about the participants' familial drinking patterns. Of those who reported their paternal and maternal grandfathers' drinking behaviors, slightly more than half classified their paternal grandfather as a social drinker (*n* = 77, 51%). Similarly, half classified their maternal grandfather as a social drinker (*n* = 76, 50%). Table 2 presents information regarding participants' own and their familial drinking patterns. The majority of participants reported that they had "moderate" alcohol use, defined as up to two drinks daily for men (*n* = 108, 72%). Of those who listed their paternal grandmother's drinking behavior, most classified their paternal grandmother as a social drinker (e.g., a person who drinks moderately and is not known to have a drinking problem; *n* = 58, 38%). Of those that listed their maternal grandmothers drinking behavior, most also classified their maternal grandmother as a social drinker (*n* = 78, 52%).

Results

I collected data on participants' anxious and avoidant attachment scores using the ECR-S (Wei et al., 2007). Table 3 presents the means and standard deviations of these scores. Table 3 also presents the minimum and maximum values of these scores.

Table 3

Summary Statistics Table for Anxious and Avoidant Attachment

Variable	*Min*	*Max*	*M*	*SD*
Anxious attachment	1.00	7.00	3.83	1.28
Avoidant attachment	1.17	6.50	3.22	1.31

As seen in Table 3, participants had an average anxious attachment score of 3.83 (*SD* = 1.28). Participants had an average avoidant attachment score of 3.22 (*SD* = 1.31). Anxious and avoidant attachment scores within this range represent an overall secure attachment pattern (Desnoyers, 2014; Felton & Jowett, 2013).

To answer the research question, I conducted a 2x3 factorial MANOVA to analyze the potential interaction effect between ethnicity and alcohol use on anxious and avoidant attachment within this sample. The independent variables were ethnicity and alcohol use, while the dependent variables were anxious and avoidant attachment. The null hypotheses were that ethnicity does not have a significant effect on anxious and avoidant attachment, that alcohol use does not have a significant effect on anxious and avoidant attachment, and that ethnicity and alcohol use do not significantly interact with anxious and avoidant attachment.

The use of the MANOVA was appropriate for this study as it is appropriate to use when assessing two or more group differences on two or more dependent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Specifically, the MANOVA was selected to test the

hypotheses that the independent variables may have an individual or interactive effect on the combined set of dependent variables.

I assessed the assumptions of normality, homogeneity of variances, and homogeneity of covariances. I used KS tests to determine whether distributions of anxious and avoidant attachment subcategorized by independent variable were significantly different from a normal distribution. Table 4 presents the results of the KS tests.

Table 4

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Results

Independent variable	Dependent variable	*D*	*P*
Alcohol use			
No use	Anxious attachment	0.15	.856
	Avoidant attachment	0.22	.400
Moderate use	Anxious attachment	0.07	.597
	Avoidant attachment	0.12	.097
Heavy use	Anxious attachment	0.10	.939
	Avoidant attachment	0.16	.554
Ethnicity			
African American	Anxious attachment	0.09	.664
	Avoidant attachment	0.11	.312
Black Caribbean	Anxious attachment	0.10	.420
	Avoidant attachment	0.11	.257

Table 4 presents the results of the KS tests. As seen in Table 4, no KS test was significant. This indicates that the dependent variables were normally distributed (Stevens, 2009).

I assessed the assumption of equality of variances using Levene's test. Levene's test was not significant for anxious attachment, F (5, 145) = 0.49, p = .784, or avoidant attachment, F (5, 144) = 0.54, p = .747. This indicates that the assumption was met for

both dependent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of covariances using Box's M test. Box's M test was not significant, χ^2 (15) = 8.14, p = .918, indicating that the assumption was met (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Table 5 presents the results of the MANOVA.

Table 5

MANOVA Results for Anxious Attachment and Avoidant Attachment by Ethnicity and Alcohol Use

Variable	Pillai	*F*	*df*	Residual df	*p*	$\eta_p 2$
Ethnicity	0.02	1.26	2	143	.286	0.02
Alcohol use	0.01	0.28	4	288	.894	0.00
Ethnicity x alcohol use	0.01	0.27	4	288	.900	0.00

As seen in Table 5, the results of the overall MANOVA indicated that the interaction effect between ethnicity and alcohol use was not significant, F (4, 288) = 0.27, p = .900, η^2_p = 0.00. This indicated that the linear combination of anxious attachment and avoidant attachment were similar for each category combination of ethnicity and alcohol use. The main effect for ethnicity was not significant, F (2, 143) = 1.26, p = .286, η^2_p = 0.02, indicating that anxious and avoidant attachment scores were similar across ethnicities. The main effect for alcohol use was not significant, F (4, 288) = 0.28, p = .894, η^2_p = 0.00, suggesting that anxious and avoidant attachment scores were also similar across levels of alcohol use. Results indicated that ethnicity did not have a significant effect on anxious and avoidant attachment. Similarly, alcohol use did not have a significant effect on anxious and avoidant attachment. The interaction between ethnicity

and alcohol use and avoidant and anxious attachment was also found to be statistically insignificant. Therefore, the null hypotheses were not rejected. For additional comparison of the study variables, two ANOVAs were conducted to determine whether any significant differences in anxious and avoidant attachment existed between ethnicity and alcohol use when the dependent variables were considered alone. Table 6 presents the results of the first ANOVA involving anxious attachment.

Table 6

ANOVA Table for Anxious Attachment by Ethnicity and Alcohol Use

Term	*SS*	*df*	*F*	*p*	η_p^2
Ethnicity	0.49	1	0.29	.590	0.00
Alcohol use	1.81	2	0.54	.584	0.01
Ethnicity x alcohol use	1.26	2	0.38	.686	0.01
Residuals	241.33	144			

Note. Overall model F (5, 144) = 0.36, p = .874.

As seen in Table 6, the overall results of the ANOVA involving anxious attachment were not significant, F (5, 144) = 0.36, p = .874. This confirms the results of the MANOVA and indicates that there is no significant difference in anxious attachment based on ethnicity or alcohol use. See Table 7 for the results of the second ANOVA involving avoidant attachment

Table 7

ANOVA Table for Avoidant Attachment by Ethnicity and Alcohol Use

Term	*SS*	*df*	*F*	*p*	η_p^2
Ethnicity	4.25	1	2.46	.119	0.02
Alcohol use	0.13	2	0.04	.962	0.00
Ethnicity: alcohol use	0.78	2	0.23	.799	0.00
Residuals	248.27	144			

Note. Overall model F (5, 144) = 0.68, p = .639.

Similarly, as seen in Table 7, results of the ANOVA involving avoidant attachment were not significant, F (5, 144) = 0.68, p = .639. This confirms the results of the MANOVA and indicates that there is no significant difference in avoidant attachment based on ethnicity or alcohol use. Tables 8 and 9 present the means of anxious and avoidant attachment at each level of the independent variables.

Table 8

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Sample Size for Anxious Attachment by Ethnicity and Alcohol Use

Combination	*M*	*SD*	*n*
African American: No use	3.55	1.71	7
Black Caribbean: No use	3.85	1.52	9
African American: Moderate use	3.86	1.23	51
Black Caribbean: Moderate use	3.74	1.29	57
African American: Heavy use	3.92	1.20	13
Black Caribbean: Heavy use	4.21	1.25	13

Table 8 presents summary statistics between group cells of ethnicity and alcohol use. As seen in Table 8, those who were Black Caribbean and had heavy alcohol use had the highest mean anxious attachment score, while participants who were African American and had no alcohol use scored the lowest in mean anxious attachment. However, despite these differences, participants scored similarly amongst the various group cells.

Table 9

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Sample Size for Avoidant Attachment by Ethnicity and Alcohol Use

Combination	*M*	*SD*	*n*
African American : No use	2.93	1.35	7
Black Caribbean: No use	3.04	1.61	9
African American : Moderate use	3.07	1.27	51
Black Caribbean: Moderate use	3.35	1.26	57
African American : Heavy use	2.92	1.52	13
Black Caribbean: Heavy use	3.59	1.28	13

Table 9 presents summary statistics between group cells of ethnicity and alcohol use. As seen in Table 9, those who were Black Caribbean and had heavy alcohol use had the highest mean avoidant attachment score, while participants who were African American and had no alcohol use scored the lowest in mean anxious attachment. However, statistical tests reported that these differences were not statistically significant and that participants scored similarly amongst the various group cells.

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine the effect of ethnicity and alcohol use on anxious and avoidant attachment patterns among adult males. I gathered and analyzed data from a sample of African American and Black Caribbean males who have been in a romantic relationship for at least one year (n = 151). Slightly less than half of the sample was African-American. The majority of participants were college graduates and were either dating or married. Additionally, the majority of participants identified themselves as moderate alcohol users, with family members who were considered social drinkers. Fewer than half of those sampled were Black Caribbean males who lived in their country of origin until at least age 15. On average, participants scored within the secure attachment parameters.

The findings suggested that ethnicity and alcohol use had no significant effect on anxious attachment and avoidant attachment. As a result, null hypotheses H_a1, H_02, *and* H_03 were not rejected. I will discuss these findings further in Chapter 5. I will also include suggestions for future research studies related to ethnicity, alcohol use, and attachment.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of ethnicity and alcohol use on anxious and avoidant attachment patterns among adult males. The research was significant because to date there are limited studies that make any distinction between African American and other black ethnicities with regard to attachment in general, and romantic attachment in particular.

The hypotheses in the study were whether or not ethnicity (African American and Black Caribbean) had a significant effect on anxious and avoidant attachment, whether or not alcohol use had a significant effect on anxious and avoidant attachment, or whether or not these variables had a combined effect on anxious and avoidant attachment. Findings from the study suggest that ethnicity and alcohol use did not significantly affect anxious and avoidant attachment. Results indicated that the majority of participants were in the secure attachment category. This chapter provides an interpretation of the study, a review of its limitations, and recommendations to future researchers.

Interpretation of Findings

In Chapter 2, I discussed the transgenerational link for both patterns of attachment and substance use. For this study, I focused specifically on romantic attachment patterns, which Hazan and Shaver (1990) noted in their seminal work is an extension of attachment patterns developed in early childhood. According to the researchers, barring an intervention, the patterns tended to remain unchanged. Substance use has been associated with maladaptive patterns of attachment (Whitesell et al., 2013). Although a direct link cannot be made, insecure patterns of attachment have been noted for some

individuals with a history of IWM developed in an environment where there is an individual with a SUD.

Recall the theoretical framework regarding the development and maintenance of secure attachment. Bowlby (1969) suggested that secure attachments are maintained when a person is able to rely on an attachment figure's ability to consistently attend to the individual's safety and security needs. The nature of repeated interactions between individuals in early development sets the expectations for future interactions. When anxious attachment and avoidant attachment were assessed among African American and Black Caribbean males, no statistically significant differences in attachment style were identified among the ethnicities in my study. The majority of participants reported secure romantic attachment histories. Results were similar to Brumbaugh, Baren, and Agishtein's (2013) cross-cultural study of attachment patterns. The researchers found that 58 % of individuals were securely attached, while 24 % of individuals were in the avoidant category and 18 % in the anxious category.

I expected to find significant differences between the two ethnic groups of young adults with regard to attachment patterns. Therefore, the data regarding romantic attachment patterns was unexpected. My research study results contradicted the limited information currently available in the psychology literature regarding romantic attachments among the ethnic groups studied. As Merz & Consedine (2012) noted, when compared to European Americans, African Americans are less dependent on a significant other in romantic relationships. Among Black Caribbean people, the level of dependence

or reliance on a significant other was expected to be even less than that of their African American counterparts.

Researcher Underwood (2013) asserted that African Americans historically have developed insecure attachment patterns as a direct result of the experience of slavery. Consequently, there has been a transgenerational impact on the romantic relationship between the African American male and female. African American males tend to not seek committed romantic relationships because traditionally they are uncertain they will be able to sufficiently provide for the safety and security of their mate (Underwood). The development of this IWM over generations would likely have contributed to African American males' romantic relationship characteristics indicative of an insecure romantic attachment pattern. Black Caribbean males, whose transgenerational history of slavery also impact the type of romantic relationship they have as adults, would likely have similar romantic attachment patterns as African American males.

The African American men's presence in the homes and romantic relationships in the lives of African American women was unpredictable (Etienne, n.d.). Historically, African American women have tended to function in the same capacity as in previous generations in response to the irregularity with which African American men attend to the needs of African American women. Consequently, in an effort to adjust to similar future interactions and thus the development of related mental representations, the women learned to adapt over time. The shift left no substantive role for the male within the family or in their romantic relationships because the women no longer expected the men to be present and available (Hurt, McElroy, Sheats, Landor, & Bryant, 2013). As a

result of the system of slavery, the women lack confidence in the African American men's ability to consistently meet their financial, safety, and security needs. Such dynamics were not conducive to adaptive family/relationship functioning (Etienne, n.d.). Similarly, Black Caribbean women developed IWMs that were directly related to their men being torn from their families (Hurt et al., 2013). As a group, these women continue to interact in romantic relationships as well as within their household based on the aforementioned transgenerational IWMs.

To gather specific details about the participants' relationship status for this study, all individuals had to have been in a romantic relationship for at least a year. According to the data, 37% of African American study participants identified as married. This number is similar to existing data regarding married African American males in the general United States population, which was found to be 32% in 2016 ("Black Demographics," n.d.). Among Black Caribbean participants, 33 % of Haitian males and 17 % of Jamaican males reported being married.

When compared to the percentage of participants identified as married, the number of Jamaican males was significantly less than that of African Americans and Haitians. My assumption was in line with the idea that a secure attachment categorization was more conducive to an individual's willingness to be in a committed relationship/marriage. As was the case for African American and Haitian males in the study, I expected to find the number of Jamaican males identified as married to be at least similar.

In an article about the trends related to marriages among Jamaican and African American males, Lincoln, Taylor, and Jackson (2008) noted that reluctance to get married is linked to the belief about the degree to which the man will be able to adequately provide for his partner or family. These individuals seriously contemplate the risks and benefits of marriage. It is not until age 40 to 50 that many make the decision to marry. Recall that Underwood (2013) found the slavery experience left both the African American and Black Caribbean male with feelings of inadequacy. It follows then that these individuals would be involved in interpersonal interactions that support the reservations about commitment.

Parker and Campbell (2017) agreed that African Americans were more likely to have an insecure attachment pattern. The researchers theorized that avoidant attachment had probably served an emotionally protective purpose for these individuals. Hazen and Shaver (1987) noted individuals with this pattern of attachment had difficulty connecting on a close emotional level with partners. Therefore, to avoid hurt and pain, independence and self-reliance were critical traits to possess. Researcher Etienne (n.d.) discussed the trauma regarding slavery that has been passed down through generations. In particular, Etienne noted that the African American males witnessed and internalized the ill-treatment of the African American female. Additionally, within that timeframe, marriage and commitment were equated with wealth and status. The knowledge of not being able to amass the monetary base needed due to limited educational advancement and earning potential may have fostered a sense of inadequacy in the African American man.

Additionally, the collective experience may have created feeling states of emotional uncertainty and fear of rejection on the part of the African American woman.

The pattern of attachment identified among participants in the Parker & Campbell (2017) study was found to be associated with increased levels of infidelity. Both African American and Black Caribbean men and women have been grappling with the lasting effects of the slavery experience on romantic attachments. The women have developed IWMs that are ingrained with expectations of infidelity on the part of their significant others. In explaining the findings, however, Parker and Campbell suggested that the desire to have all needs met, including venturing outside the bounds of their primary relationship, did not take away from the love that African American men felt toward a primary partner. Like Etienne (n.d.), Thomas (2016) reported that the form of attachment among African American and Black Caribbean males is tied to the lasting effects of the slavery experience. Notably, these men are in pursuit of a certain ideal using the slave-master as a prototype for manhood. In such a representation, the man is defined by financial status and the number of children he produces (Thomas). These elements of manhood are contrary to Bowlby's theory of secure attachment development.

As previously mentioned, most of the study participants were classified as securely attached. However, in reviewing the data for individual differences among participants who identified as being in the insecure categories, an interesting pattern emerged. Among the Black Caribbean participants classified with avoidant romantic attachment patterns, all reported migrating to the United States prior age 15, while those with an anxious attachment categorization indicated a later migration age. Note that for

individuals with an anxious attachment pattern, a significant fear of abandonment permeates relationships (Seedall & Lachmar, 2016). Consequently, these individuals routinely seek closeness with the attachment figure to quell the dreaded abandonment.

This study's finding is contrary to previous data that noted that Black Caribbean individuals are socialized to maintain emotional distance (Merz & Consedine, 2012). I expected this particular Caribbean cultural norm to be fairly embedded within the participants' IWMs. One possible explanation for the difference in pattern may be assimilation to the romantic relationship norms in the United States. Specifically, living in the United States prior to age 15, the individual had probably developed new IWMs based on repeated interactions with regard to relationships in general and romantic relationships in particular. I expected participants who indicated migrating to the United States after age 15 to report attachment patterns similar to the Black Caribbean and African American collectives.

Based on the research results, it would appear that some participants from a traditionally avoidant attachment socialization now exhibit an anxious attachment orientation. In speculating a reason this may have occurred, recall Simpson and Campbell's (2013) assertion that an individual may alter expectations of interaction outcome given new information. These men may now fear rejection, and thus actively engage in behaviors indicative of being overly concerned about abandonment. This emotional state may be related to feelings of inadequacy as with avoidant attachment patterns observed in the Parker and Campbell (2017) study.

Other factors related to the impact on attachment specific to African American and Black Caribbean males warrant consideration. For example, although the use of survey questionnaires helps create a general picture of the participants in this study, underlying explanations are not available regarding partner selection. It is possible that an African American male in a relationship with an African American female may have different romantic attachment experiences than a Black Caribbean male in a relationship with an African American female.

In a study of African American and Caucasian mothers and the safety and security needs of their young children, Bakermans-Kranenburg, van IJzendoorn, and Kroonenberg (2004) found that unlike African American children, Caucasian children exhibited secure attachment patterns. The African American mothers were not available to adequately attend to their children's needs because they were focused on meeting demands related to finances and other responsibilities. In the context of Bowlby's attachment theory, the findings can be used to support the conclusion that barring interventions, the African American children in the study will grow up to become adults with insecure attachment patterns. Another possible factor that may impact attachment is discussed in the Kilmann, Carranza, and Vendemia (2006) study. They reported that being from an intact family unit fosters greater experience of secure attachment than those from non-intact families. Therefore, the romantic relationship between an African American or Black Caribbean male and a Caucasian female would likely be a different experience.

Regarding alcohol use among individuals in my study, there were no statistical significant effect on anxious and avoidant attachment. Unlike attachment patterns, the

study findings are generally consistent with the current limited data regarding alcohol use among the ethnicities examined. Specifically, previous research revealed that African American and Black Caribbean males report moderate alcohol use patterns compared to their white counterparts (McDaniel, 2013). In the current research study, only a small percentage of participants from each ethnic group classified themselves or family members in the severe alcohol use category. The majority of participants identified as moderate users. As such, the impact of alcohol use on attachment patterns among the participants would also likely to be insignificant. Had the level of substance use been severe, it is possible that the dominant attachment pattern found would have been insecure as SUDs have previously been linked to insecure forms of attachment.

Among African American male participants who reported family alcohol use as problematic, I expected to find that males in this category would have similar alcohol use patterns based on an intergenerational process. Similarly, there would be a higher percentage of African American males who report either anxious or avoidant romantic attachment patterns due to the long term impact of slavery on relationships. However, regarding alcohol use, half of African American participants reported being moderate alcohol users. Of Black Caribbean males in the study, 28 % of Jamaicans reported moderate use, while 24% of Haitians reported in the aforementioned category. African American had the highest number of relatives whom they identified as possible problem drinkers, while among Black Caribbean males; Jamaicans reported the highest number of social drinkers in their families.

In contemplating possible explanations for the conflicting results, I surmise that a historical factor may be at play here. The research results may reflect the desire of research participants to provide socially appropriate answers to questions pertaining to romantic attachment and relationship status. From television and other forms of media, African American males have been negatively represented (Perry, Smith, & Brooms, 2014). Therefore, participating in the study, it is possible that participants may have felt socially obligated to offer a positive representation of self. Additionally, Hurt et al. (2013) indicated that African American and Black Caribbean males may not respond with complete honesty due to historical mistrust relating to research studies.

Discussing the level of mistrust amongst African Americans with regard to participating in research, Hurt et al. (2013) noted that conducting qualitative studies allowed participant-researcher relationship development. As a result of the direct interaction with the researcher, the participants were able to feel comfortable enough to openly discuss thoughts and feelings about the research topic. For each participant, asking questions and being provided opportunities for clarification represented opportunities to eliminate any possible misunderstandings or misrepresentations.

Supporting the idea of facilitating trust, Watson, Robinson, Harker, and Arriola (2016) reported that in research involving African American participants, the individuals must have some level of trust in the researcher in order for to fully comply with the established study procedures. Given the fact that I recruited for this study via Facebook, it is possible that although the anonymous nature of the process was emphasized, some of those who chose to participate in the study may have been wary about the implications of

complete honesty. The concern was likely related to the possibility I would learn about their individual responses. As such, some may have not answered as honestly for fear of being judged negatively.

Limitations of the Study

Although for some approaches data collection can be conducted in a timely and more cost-effective manner when compared with other methods, the information gathered may be skewed. Inherent to quantitative studies, the use of surveys to gather information poses problems with the completion of questions, and participant willingness to provide honest responses to questionnaire items.

Additionally, the survey questions in the current study were regarding topics where responses have attached social judgement. For example, asking questions about the type of interactions one has with a significant other may create the need to respond in a manner one believes is socially acceptable.

Despite initial low response rate, the preliminary number of participants did exceed the required sample size. However, eight percent of the participants did not answer all items on the survey and as a result the incomplete data could not be used. It is possible that with a greater number of participants, a different set of results would have emerged.

Recommendations

Future research should add to the current information regarding African American and Black Caribbean males as it relates to romantic attachment. Specifically, and most importantly, as African American and Black Caribbean individuals are rarely represented

in existing research data, effort should be put into determining effective and ethical strategies for recruitment.

The use of survey data was cost-effective and timely. However, gathering data may have yielded responses considered socially acceptable and may not have been a true representation of the study participants and the factors measured. Therefore, exploring the identified research problem from a qualitative perspective may provide valuable information regarding the inner workings of the attachment patterns among these African American and Black Caribbean adult males.

Because historically the issue of mistrust is a factor among members of the ethnicities in this study, conducting a qualitative research study using a semi-structured interview approach may yield different responses. It is possible that establishing a researcher-participant relationship and creating trust would allow participants to feel less guarded. The process would thereby create an atmosphere where the individual is willing to provide open and honest responses.

For this current research, demographic questions included the ethnic background of participants' romantic partner. However, no additional information about the partner was requested. I recommend that future studies include exploration of the attachment patterns of African American and Black Caribbean males in romantic relationships with persons from different ethnicities. Such studies would likely shed light on possible factors influencing the pattern of attachment between the couples, as well as reasons for partner selection. Additionally, my study's demographic data consisted of age ranges. Based on Lincoln et al.'s (2008) findings about age and commitment readiness level,

looking at age-related trends may provide greater understanding of romantic attachment among African American and Black Caribbean males.

Social Change Implications

The study conclusion is that there was no significant difference in attachment patterns about African American and Black Caribbean adult males. The majority of participants in the sample were found to be securely attached in their romantic relationships. On an individual level, a significant number of the participants appear to possess the IWM which facilitates confidence in their ability to provide safety and security for their mates. Additionally, there was no significant difference in alcohol use among participants. A greater amount of the African American and Black Caribbean males in this study were identified as moderate users.

The fact that the majority of participants were involved in a committed relationship, including marriages, speaks to a potential change in the collective pattern of attachment patterns on an individual, community, and societal level. In examining the development of positive relationship interactions, Seedall and Lachmar (2016) reported that it is important to identify the specific makeup of romantic relationships where the attachment is secure. By so doing, individuals can begin making changes toward healthier romantic interactions. For persons with have avoidant attachment orientation, emotional closeness fosters discomfort. Hazen and Shaver (1987) posited that it is difficult for these individuals to make deep connections with their partners. For those with anxious attachment, there is an overwhelmingly strong need for closeness and reassurance within the relationship (Seedall & Lachmar) as concern of abandonment is intense.

As a collective, African American and Black Caribbean adult males have historically been viewed behaviorally as lacking in the essential interaction-related characteristics needed for healthy lasting relationships (Underwood, 2013). As with any person from another ethnic group, it is important for African American and Black Caribbean adult males to know the type of attachment pattern they have developed over time, the factors which contribute to such development, as well as the strategies that can be used to change insecure forms of attachment. The male's inability to meet the safety and security needs of a significant other can create feelings of distrust, which can contribute to the other partner's insecure attachment. The result is emotional distancing which is created from learning not to expect that their needs will be met. Unmet needs can also contribute to the romantic partner engaging in behaviors that serve to get the other person's attention. Neither scenario is conducive to what Bowlby (1969) described as secure bond critical to the individual's well-being.

The socialization of minimizing negative emotional states for self-preservation found among African American and Black Caribbean individuals as described by Merz and Consedine (2012) may contribute to not vocalizing and addressing safety and security needs. However, if members of these ethnic groups learn new ways of interacting, then the socialization would be that of a secure attachment pattern development. As with adaptive childhood development, satisfying the safety and security needs of a significant other fosters confidence in the relationship itself (Seedall & Lachmar, 2016). Not only does each person believe that the other is going to be available, these beliefs will be replicated in interactions with others in the family. Like attachment

patterns, alcohol use patterns have previously been noted as generational (NIDA, 2010) and linked to insecure attachment (Borhani, 2013). Therefore, it is plausible that for the participants in this study, their secure attachment orientation lends itself to the more adaptive alcohol use patterns.

By breaking away from the figurative chains of slavery regarding romantic relationships within the African American and Black communities, over time these males can create new schemas and IWMs regarding interpersonal interactions within their romantic relationships. Important to the long term effect of creating new patterns of attachment, children in households with African American and Black Caribbean males come to realize the benefits of an intact family (Underwood, 2013). As with attachment patterns, substance use patterns can also be altered where in the expected pattern of use falls within the moderate use category.

Clinicians working with African American and Black Caribbean adult males or other individuals with the knowledge and skillset to teach these new patterns of attachment interaction can be crucial change agents in the lives of members of these ethnic groups. In facilitating this important shift, one male, one family, one community at a time can benefit from the ripple effects of secure attachment pattern development and maintenance.

Summary

Previous research data highlighted the facts that attachment patterns and substance use are transgenerational. Passed from elders on down, these patterns continue barring deliberate intervention. Substance use has been noted to impact the attachment

patterns developed. In an environment where substance use is problematic, the IWMs can reflect insecure attachment patterns. The IWMs tend to remain overtime and dictate the type of interaction an individual has with family members and others, including romantic partners. Previous research supports the idea that following the slavery experience, as a collective, African American and Black Caribbean men and women have had difficulty with creating and sustaining secure romantic attachments.

The current research revealed that among the two ethnicities studied, romantic attachment patterns were found to be secure. Additionally, the regarding substance use, moderate alcohol use was predominant for both African American and Black Caribbean study participants. Had the level of substance use been severe, it is possible that the dominant attachment pattern found would have been insecure.

Adding to the most recent data on African American and Black Caribbean males in general, and attachment patterns in particular, it may be possible to identify other variables that impact attachment patterns among the ethnicities studied. For example, finding out more about the underlying details regarding the items answered on the surveys relating to attachment and alcohol use may yield useful results.

The idea that African American and Black Caribbean males are unwilling to be in a loving committed relationships does not take into consideration the impact of slavery on the collective people (Hurt et al., 2013; Underwood, 2013). Although males were the focus of this research study, African American and Black Caribbean females also experience the long-term ramifications of slavery. These women bring into their relationships the sets of romantic attachment IWMs passed on from one generation to the

next. In working with African American and Black Caribbean adult males, it is important that clinicians identify transgenerational influences related to patterns of attachment in the ethnic groups.

The participants in this latest study were found to be generally securely attached. However, for those with anxious or avoidant attachment patterns, clinicians and others working with African American and Black Caribbean males identified as having insecure attachment can help facilitate creating new IWMs. The process can bring about change in any long-standing maladaptive patterns that exist in the individual's current romantic relationship, family and community interactions.

References

Adult Children of Alcoholics World Service Organization. (2017). Welcome to adults of children of alcoholics/dysfunctional families. Retrieved from 0http://www.adultchildren.org/

Ainsworth, M. S. (1979). Infant-mother attachment. *American Psychologist*, *34*, 932-937. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.34.10.932

Ainsworth, M. S. & Bell, S. M. (1970). Attachment, exploration, and separation: Illustrated by the behavior of one-year-olds in a strange situation. *Child Developmen*t, *41*, 49-67. doi:10.2307/1127388

Ainsworth, M. S., Blehar, M. C., Waters, E., & Wall, S. (1978). *Patterns of attachment: A psychological study of the strange situation*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Ainsworth, M. S., & Bowlby, J. (1991). An ethological approach to personality development. *American Psychologist*, *46*(4), 333–341. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.46.4.333

American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (5th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Attili, G., Vermigli, P., & Roazzi, A. (2011). Rearing styles, parents' attachment mental state, and children's social abilities: The link to peer acceptance. *Child Development Research, 2011*(1), 1–12. doi:10.1155/2011/267186

Bakermans-Kranenburg, M. J., van Ijzendoom, M. H., & Kroonenberg, P. M. (2004). Differences in attachment security between African American and white children:

Ethnicity or socioeconomic status? *Infant Behavior & Development, 27*(3), 417-433. doi.org/10.1016/j.infbeh.2004.02.002

Bates, D., Mächler, M., Bolker, B., & Walker, S. (2014). Fitting linear mixed-effects models using lme4. Journal of Statistical Software, *67*(1), 1-48. doi:10.18637/jss.v067.i01

Beijersbergen, M. D., Juffer, F., Bakermans-Kranenburg, M. J., & van IJzendoorn, M. J. (2012). Remaining or becoming secure: Parental sensitive support predicts attachment continuity from infancy to adolescence in a longitudinal adoption study. *Developmental Psychology, 48(5*), 1277–1282. doi:10.1037/a0027442

Bergin, C. C., & Bergin, D. A. (2016). *Child and adolescent development in your classroom, Topical Approach* (3rd.ed.). Boston, MA: Cengage Learning

Bettman, J. E., & Friedman, D. D. (2012). *Attachment-based clinical work with children and adolescents*. New York, NY: Springer.

Bick, J., & Dozier, M. (2013). The effectiveness of attachment-based intervention in promoting foster mother's sensitivity toward foster infants. *Infant Mental Health Journal, 34*(2), 95–103. doi:10.1002/imhj.21373

Black Demographics (n.d.). Black male statistics: Relationships. Retrieved from http://blackdemographics.com/population/black-male-statistics/

Borhani, Y. (2013). Substance abuse and attachment styles: A relational study. *LUX: A Journal of Transdisciplinary Writing and Research from Claremont Graduate University, 2*(1), 1–13. doi:10.5642/lux.201301.04

Bornstein, M. H., Jager, J., & Putnik, D. L. (2013). Sampling in development science: Situations, shortcomings, solutions, and standards. *Developmental Review*, *33*(4), 353–370. doi:10.1016/j.dr.2013.08.003

Bowlby, J. (1969). *Attachment and loss, Vol. 1: Attachment*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Bowlby, J. (1981). Psychoanalysis as a natural science. *Psychoanalytic Psychology*, *1*(1), 7–21. doi:10.1037/0736-9735.1.1.7

Bowlby, J. (1982). *Attachment and loss, Vol. 1*: *Attachment* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Basic Books.

Bowlby, J. (1988). *A Secure-base*: *Clinical applications of attachment theory*. London, United Kingdom: Tavistock.

Bowlby, J. (2008). *Attachment* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Basic Books.

Brathwaite, M. G. (2010). *How eastern Afro-Caribbean women report about their intimate relationship: A descriptive and correlational study* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis database. (No. 3417252)

Brody, G. H., Yu, T., Chen, Y. F., Kogan, S. M., & Smith, K. (2012). The adults in the making program: Long-term protective stabilizing effects on alcohol use and substance use problems for rural African American emerging adults. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *80*(1), 17–28. doi:10.1037/a0026592

Brown, G. L., Manglesdorf, S. C., & Neff, C. (2012). Father involvement, paternity sensitivity, and father-child attachment security in the first three years. *Journal of*

Family Psychology, 26, 421-430. doi:10.1037/a0027836

Brumbaugh, C. C., Baren, A., & Agishtein, P. (2013). Cultural variation in adult attachment: The impact of ethnicity, collectivism, and country of origin. *Journal of Social, Evolutionary, and Cultural Psychology, 7*(4), 384-405. doi:10.1037/h0099181

Calhoun, S., Conner, E., Miller, M., & Messina, N. (2015). Improving the outcomes of children affected by parental substance abuse: A review of randomized controlled trials. *Substance Abuse & Rehabilitation, 2015*(6), 15–24. doi:10.2147/SAR.S46439

Carr, A. (2014). The evidence-base for family therapy and systematic interventions for child-focused problems. *Journal of Family Therapy, 36*(2), 107–157. doi:10.1111/1467-6427.12032

Cassidy, J., Woodhouse, S. S., Sherman, L. T., Stupica, B., & Lejuez, W. (2011). Enhancing infant attachment security: An examination of treatment of efficacy and differential susceptibility. *Development and Psychopathology, 23*(1), 131–148. doi:10.1017/S0954579410000696

Cassidy, J., Ziv, Y., Stupica, B., Sherman, L. J., Butler, H., Karfgin, A., . . . Powell, B. (2010). Enhancing attachment security in infants of women in a jail diversion program. *Attachment and Human Development, 12*(4), 333–353. doi:10.1080/14616730903416955

Catherall, D. R. (2014). *Handbook of stress, trauma, and the family*. London, England: Routledge.

Center for Disease Control and Prevention (2014). Understanding child maltreatment Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/pdf/understanding-cm-factsheet.pdf

Cicchetti, D., & Carlson, V. (Eds.). (1989). *Child maltreatment*: *Theory and research on the cause and consequence of child abuse and neglect* (pp. 432–463). London, England: Cambridge University Press.

Clausen, J. M., Aguilar, R. M., & Ludwig, M. E. (2012). Fostering healthy attachment between substance dependent parents and their infant children. *Journal of Infant and Adolescent Psychotherapy*, *11*(4), 376–386. doi:10.1080/15289168.2012.735183

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). St. Paul, MN: West.

Colmer, K., Rutherford, L., & Murphy, P. (2011). Attachment theory and primary caregiving. *Australasian Journal of Early Childhood*, *36*(4), 16–20. Retrieved from http://www.earlychildhoodaustralia.org.au/our-publications/australasian-journal-early-childhood/

Connell, A. M., Patton, A., & McKillop, H. (2015). Binge drinking, depression, and electrocortical responses to emotional images. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, *29*(3), 673–682. doi:10.1037/adb0000071

Cook, G., & Littlefield-Cook, J. (2013). *The world of children* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Pearson Higher Education.

Cornell, S. & Hartman, D. (2007). *Ethnicity and race: Making identities in a changing*

world (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Cusimano, A. M., & Riggs, S. A. (2013). Perceptions of interparental conflict, romantic attachment, and psychological distress in college students. *Couple and Family Psychology: Research and Practice, 2*(1), 45–59. doi:10.1037/a0031657

Cyr, C., Euser, E. M., Bakermans-Kranenburg, M. J., & Van IJzendoorn, M. H. (2010). Attachment security and disorganization in maltreating and high-risk families: A series of metanalyses. *Developmental Psychopathology, 22*(1), 87–108. doi:10.1017/S095457940999028

Dattilio, F. M. & Edwards, D. J., & Fishman, D. B. (2010). Case studies within a mixed method paradigm: Toward a resolution of the alienation between researcher and practitioner in psychotherapy research. *Theory, Research, Practice, Training, 47*(4), 427–441. doi:10.1037/a0021181

DeCarlo, L. T. (1997). On the meaning and use of kurtosis. *Psychological methods, 2*(3), 292-307. doi:10.1037/1082-989X.2.3.292

Dennis, C. L. (2010). Postpartum depression peer support: Maternal perception from a randomized controlled trial. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 47*(5), 560–568. doi:10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2009.10.015

Desalu, J. M. (2016). *Associations of alcohol-facilitating and stressful environments with alcohol behaviors in Black college students: Moderation by ADH1B*3 and religiosity* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and

Thesis database. (No. 10195217)

Desnoyers, D. (2014). *Parents' concerns about their gay and lesbian children: An attachment perspective*. (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis database. (No. 3690714)

Dinero, R. E., Conger, R. D., Shaver, P. R., Widaman, K. F., & Larsen-Rife, D. (2008). Influence of family of origin and adult romantic partners on romantic attachment security. *Journal of Family Psychology, 22*(4), 622–632. doi:10.1037/a0012506ta

Durrah, D. A. (2013). *Understanding African American male inmates' decision to seek mental health treatment while incarcerated* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis database. (No. 3604412)

Dykas, M. J., & Cassidy, J. (2011). Attachment and social processing of information across a lifespan: Theory and evidence. *Psychological Bulletin, 137*(1), 19–46. doi:10.1037/a0021367

Egan, K. P. (2013). *Examining the relationship between competitiveness and body dissatisfaction among African American and Caucasian women* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Thesis database. (No. 3591529)

Eiden, R. D., Ostrov, J. M., Colder, C. R., Leonard, K. E., Edwards, E. P., & Orrange-Torchia, T. (2010). Parent alcohol problems and peer bullying and victimization: Child gender and toddler attachment security as moderators. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology, 39*(3), 341–350. doi:10.1080/15374411003691768

Eisenberger, N., Master, S., Inagaki, T. K., Taylor, S. E., Shirinyan, D., Lieberman, M. D., & Naliboff, B. D. (2011). Attachment figures activate a safety signal-related neural region and reduced pain experience. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, *108*(28), 11721–11726. doi:10.1073/pnas.1108239108

Elmes, D. G., Kantowitz, B. H., & Roediger, H. L. (2012). *Research methods in psychology* (9th ed.). Monterey, CA: Wadsworth.

Emery, R. E. (2013). *Cultural sociology of divorce: An encyclopedia*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Etienne, S. (n.d.). Social construction of black marriages in America: Saving black marriages. Retrieved from http://www.savingblackmarriages.com/social-construction-of-black-marriages-in-america.html

Faris, M., & McCarroll, E. (2010). Crying babies: Answering the call of infant cries. *Texas Child Care*, *35*(2), 14–21. Retrieved from http://www.childcare quarterly.com/

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A. G. (2008). G*Power Version 3.1.2 [Computer software]. Kiel, Germany: University Press. Retrieved from http://www.psycho.uniduesseldorf.de/abteilungen/aap/gpower3/download-and-register.

Felton, L. & Jowett, S. (2013). Attachment and well-being: The mediating effects of psychological needs satisfaction within the coach-athlete and parent-athlete

relational context. *Psychology of Sports & Exercise, 14*(1), 57-65. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2012.07.006

Ferguson, G. M., Iturbide, M. I., & Gordon, B. P. (2014). Tridimensional (3D) acculturation: Ethnic identity and psychological functioning among tricultural Jamaican immigrants. *International Perspectives in Psychology: Research, Practice, Consultation, 3*(4), 238-251. doi:10.1037/ipp0000019

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Florida Department of Children and Families. (2014). Mission, vision, and values. Retrieved from http://www.myflfamilies.com/about-us/office-secretary/mission-vision-values

Frazier, J. W., Tettey-Fio, E. L., & Henry, N. F. (2016). *Race, ethnicity, and place in a changing America* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: State of New York University Press

Friesen, M. D., Woodward, L. J., Horwood, L. J., & Fergusson, D. M. (2013). Quality of parent-child relations in adolescence and later adulthood parenting outcomes. *Social Development, 22*(3), 539–554. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9507.2012.00657.x

Fripp, J. A. (2015). *Understanding the influence of stigma of attitudes on African American and Latino/a populations regarding participation in mental health services* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis database. (No. 3704335)

Garland, R. (1991). The mid-point on a rating scale: Is it desirable? *Marketing Bulletin, 2*, 66–70. Retrieved from http://marketing-bulletin.massey.ac.nz/

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2016). *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference* (14th ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

George, M. R. W., Cummings, E. M., & Davies, P. T. (2010). Positive aspects of fathering and mothering, and children's attachment in kindergarten. *Early Child Development and Care, 180*(2), 107–119. doi:10.1080/03004430903414752

Gillath, O., Karantzas, G. C., & Fraley, R. C. (2016). *Adult attachment: A concise introduction to theory and research*. New York, NY: Elsevier.

Gore-Felton, K., Ginzburg, M., Chartier, W., Gardner, J., Agnew-Blais, J., McGarvey, E., Koopman, C. (2012). Attachment style and coping in relation to posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms among adults living with HIV/AIDS. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 36*(1), 51–60. doi:10.1007/s10865-012-9400-x

Greenberg, M. T., Cicchetti, D., & Cummings, E. M. (Eds.). (1990). *Attachment in the preschool years: Theory, research and intervention* (121–160). Chicago, IL: University Press.

Grossman, J. L. (2013, February 19). In Utero: The New Jersey Supreme Court says prenatal exposure is not sufficient evidence of child abuse. *Verdict.* Retrieved from https://verdict.justia.com/

Grove, S. K., Gray, J. R., & Burns, N. (2014). *Understanding nurse research: Building an evidenced-based practice*. St. Louis, MI: Elsevier.

Haardorfer, R., Berg, C. J., Lewis, M., Payne, J., Pillai, D., McDonald, B., & Windle, M. (2016). Polytobacco, marijuana, and alcohol use patterns in college students: A latent class analysis. *Addictive Behaviors*, *59*(1), 58–64.

doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2016.03.034

Hamilton, C. E. (2000). Continuity and discontinuity of attachment from infancy through adolescence. *Child Development, 71*(3), 690–694. doi:10.1111/1467-8624.00177

Harlow, H., & Suomi, S. (1970). Nature of love: Simplified. *American Psychologist, 25*(2), 161–168. doi:10.1037/h0029383

Harms, P. D. (2011). Adult attachment styles in the work place. *Human Resource Management Review, 21*(4), 285–296. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2010.10.006

Haste-Jackson, C. (2013). *Strengths and risk factors for romantic relationships: Perspectives of African American women* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis database. (No. 3607829)

Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. R. (1987). Romantic love conceptualized as an attachment process. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*(3), 511–524. doi:10.1037//0022-3514.52.3.511

Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. R. (1990). Love and work: An attachment-theoretical perspective. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *59*(2), 270–280. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.59.2.270

Herek, G. (2012). A brief introduction to sampling. Retrieved from http://psc.dss.ucdavis.edu/faculty_sites//rainbow/html/fact_sample.html

Hoeve, M., Stams, G. J. J. M., Van der Put, C. E., Dubas, J. S., Van der Laan, P. H., & Gerris, J. R. M. (2012). A meta-analysis of attachment to parents and delinquency. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, *40*(5), 771–785. doi:10.1007/s10802-011-9608-1

Hoffmann, N. G., & Harrison, P. A. (2013). *SUDDS-5 manual: substance use disorder diagnostic schedule*. Carson City, NV: The Change.

Howell, D. C. (2013). *Fundamental statistics for the behavioral sciences* (8th ed.). Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole-Thompson Learning.

Hurt, T. R., McElroy, S. E., Sheats, K. J., Landor, A. M., & Bryant, C. M. (2013). Married black men's opinions as to why Black women are disproportionately single: A qualitative study. *Personal Relationships*, 21(1), 88-109. doi:10.1111/pere.12019

Intellectus Statistics [Online computer software]. (2018). Retrieved from https://analyze.intellectusstatistics.com/

Jellinek, E. M. (1960). *The disease concept of alcoholism*. New Haven, CT: University Press.

Jones, J. D., Brett, B. E., Ehrlich, K. B., Lejuez, C. W., & Cassidy, J. (2014). Maternal attachment style and responses to adolescents' negative emotions: The mediating role of maternal emotional regulation. *Parenting*, *14*(3/4), 235–257. doi:10.1080/15295192.2014.972760

Jones, J. H. (1981). *The Tuskegee syphilis experiment*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Joseph, N., Watson, N. N., Wang, Z., Case, A. D., & Hunter, C. D. (2013). Rules of engagement: Predictors of Black Caribbean immigrant's engagement with African American culture. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, *19*, 414-423. doi:10.1037/a0032659

Joseph, M. A., O'Connor, T. G., Briskman, J. A., Maughan, B., & Scott, S. (2014). The

formation of secure new attachments by children who were maltreated: An observational study of adolescents in foster care. *Development and Psychopathology, 26*(1), 67– 80. doi:10.1017/S0954579413000540

Kalat, J., & Shiota, M. (2011). *Emotion* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.

Kilmann, P. R., Carranza, L. V., & Vendemia, M. C. (2006). Recollection of parent characteristics and attachment patterns for college women of intact vs. non-intact families. *Journal of Adolescence, 29*(2006), 89-102. 10.1016/j.adolescence.2005.01.004

Krumpal, I. (2013). Determinants of social desirability bias in sensitive surveys: A literature review. *Quality & Quantity, 47*(4), 2025–2047. doi:10.1007/s11135-011-9640-9

Lamb, M. E., Thompson, R. A., Gardner, W., & Charnov, E. L. (2013). *Infant-mother attachment: The origins and developmental significance of individual differences in strange situation behavior*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Lander, L., Howsare, J., & Byrne, M. (2013). The impact of substance use disorders on families and children: From theory to practice. *Social Work and Public Health, 28*(3/4), 198–205. doi:10.1080/19371918.2013.759005

Laurent, H. K., Ablow, J. C., & Measelle, J. (2012). Taking stress response out of the box: Stability, discontinuity, and temperament effects on HPA and SNS across social stressors. *Developmental Psychology, 48*(1), 35–45. doi:10.1037/a0025518

Leitenberg, H. (2013). *Handbook of social and evaluation anxiety*. New York, NY: Springer.

Lesane, E. S. (2013). *African American women coping with lived experiences of limited mental healthcare access in rural North Carolina* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis database. (No. 3559899)

Levene, H. (1960). Robust tests for equality of variances. In I. Olkin, S. G. Ghurye, W. Hoeffding, W. G. Madow, & H. B. Mann (Eds), *Contributions to probability and statistics*. *Essays in honor of Harold Hotelling* (pp. 278-292). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Levesque, A. (2012). Influences of family of origin and relationship closeness on romantic attachment security. *Psi Chi Journal of Psychology Research*, 17(4), 145–153. doi:10.24839/2164-8204.JN17.4.145

Lincoln, K. D., Taylor, R.J., & Jackson, J. S. (2008). Romantic relationships among unmarried African Americans and Caribbean Blacks: Findings from the National Survey of American Life. *Family Relations, 57,* 254-266. doi:10.1111/j.1741-3729.2008.00498.x

Losby, J., & Wetmore, A. (2012). *CDC coffee break: Using Likert scales in evaluation survey work*. Retrieved from CDC website: http://www.cdc.gov/dhdsp/ pubs/docs/cb_february_14_2012.pdf

Lyman, M. D. (2013). *Drugs in Society*: *Causes, concepts, and control* (7th ed.). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.

Main, M. (1996). Introduction to a special section on attachment and psychopathology: 2. An overview of the field of attachment. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 64*(2), 237–243. doi:10.1037//0022-006x.64.2.237

Main, M., & Goldwyn, R. (1998). *Adult attachment classification system*. Unpublished manuscript, University of California, Berkeley, CA.

Mallet, K. A., Marzell, M., Scaglione, N., Hultgren, B., & Turrisi, R. (2014). Are all alcohol and energy drink users the same? Examining individual variation in relation to alcohol mixed with energy drink use, risky drinking, and consequence. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors, 28*(1), 97–104. doi:10.1037/a0032203

McConnell, M., & Moss, E. (2011). Attachment across the life span: Factors that contribute to stability and change. *Australian Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology, 11*, 60–77. Retrieved from https://www.newcastle.edu.au/about-uon/governance-and-leadership/faculties-and-schools/faculty-of-education-and-arts/school-of-education/school-research/ajedp/about-us

McDaniel, B. C. (2013). *African-American adult children of alcoholics: A retrospective narrative on protective factors that foster resilience* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Thesis database. (No. 3558748)

McLeod, S. (2007). Bowlby attachment theory. Retrieved from http://www.simplypsychology.org/bowlby.html

Mellinger, C. D., & Hanson, T. A. (2016). *Quantitative research methods in translating and interpreting studies*. London, England: Routledge.

Merz, E. M., & Consedine, N. S. (2012). Ethnic group moderates the association between attachment and well-being in later life. *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology, 18*(4), 404–415. doi:10.1037/a0029595

Mikulincer, M., Shaver, P. R., & Pereg, D. (2003). Attachment theory and affect

regulation: The dynamics, development, and cognitive consequences of attachment-related strategies. *Motivation and Emotion, 27*(2), 77-102. doi:10.1023/A:1024515519160

Mikulincer, M., & Shaver, P. R. (2012). An attachment perspective on psychopathology. *World Psychiatry, 11*(1), 11–15. doi:10.1016/j.wpsyc.2012.01.003

Mills-Koone, W. G., Appleyard, K., Barnette, M., Deng, M., Putallaz, M., & Cox, M. (2011). Adult attachment style and stress as risk factors for early maternal sensitivity and negativity. *Infant Mental Health Journal, 32*(3), 277–285. doi:10.1002/imhj.20296

Muller, R. T. (2014, June 20). Fragmented child: Disorganized attachment and disassociation [Blog post]. Retrieved from https://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/talking-about-trauma/201406/fragmented-child-disorganized-attachment-and-dissociation

Murphy, M. (2012). *Therapist's perception on working with the developmental repair model with children who come from disruptive attachment styles* (Unpublished master's thesis). St. Catherine University, Saint Paul, MN.

Murphy, A., Steele, M., Dube, S. R., Bate, J., Bonuck, K., Meissner, P., & Steele, H. (2014). Adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) questionnaire and adult attachment interview (AAI): Implications for parent child relationships. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 38*(2), 224–233. doi:10.1016/j.chiabu.2013.09.004

National Institute on Drug Abuse (2010). *Info facts: High school and youth trends*. Retrieved from http://www.drugabuse.gov/publications/infofacts/high-school-

youth-trends

National Institute on Drug Abuse (2012a). Brain awareness week. Retrieved from http://www.drugabuse.gov/about-nida/directors-page/messages-director/2012/03/brain-awareness-week

National Institute on Drug Abuse (2012b). *Principles of substance use disorder: A research-based guide*. Retrieved from http://www.drugabuse.gov/publications/principles-drug-addiction-treatment-research-based-guide-third-edition/frequently-asked-questions/drug-addiction-treatment-worth-its-cost

National Institute on Drug Abuse (2014). Drugs, brain, and behavior: The science of addiction. Retrieved from https://www.drugabuse.gov/publications/drugs-brains-behavior-science-addiction/drug-abuse-addiction

Newton, R. R., & Rudestam, K. E. (2012). *Your statistical consultant.* Sage Publications.

Niccols, A., Milligan, K., Smith, A., Sword, W., Thabane, L., & Henderson, J. (2012). Integrated programs for mothers with substance abuse issues: A systematic review of studies reporting on parenting outcomes. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *36*(4), 308–322. doi:10.1016/j.chiabu.2011.10.007

Nosko, A., Tieu, T. T., Lawford, H., & Pratt, M. W. (2011). How do I love thee? Let me count the ways: Parenting during adolescence, attachment styles, and romantic narratives in emerging adulthood. *Developmental Psychology*, *47*(3), 645–657. doi:10.1037/a0021814

Obegi, J. H., & Berant, E. (2010). *Attachment theory and research in clinical work with adults*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Osborne, J., & Waters, E. (2002). Four assumptions of multiple regression that researchers should always test. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation, 8*(2), 1-9. Retrieved from http://pareonline.net/getvn.asp?n=2&v=8

Pajulo, M., Pyykkonen, N., Kalland, M., Sinkkonen, J., Helenius, H., Punamaki, R. L., & Suchman, N. (2012). Substance-abusing mothers in residential treatment with their babies: Importance of pre- and postnatal maternal reflective functioning. *Infant Mental Health Journal, 33*(1), 70–81. doi:10.1002/imhj.20342

Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS survival manual: a step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS.* Maidenhead, United Kingdom: McGraw-Hill.Engl

Park, S., & Schepp, K. G. (2014). A systematic review of research of children of alcoholics: Their inherent resilience and vulnerability. *Journal of Child & Family Studies, 24*(5), 1222–1231. doi:10.1007/s10826-014-9930-7

Parker, M. L. & Campbell, K. (2017). Infidelity and attachment: Moderating the role of race/ethnicity. *Contemporary Family Therapy, 39,* 172-183. doi:10.1007/s10591-017-9415-0

Parolin, M., & Simonelli, A. (2016). Attachment theory and maternal drug addiction: The contribution to parenting interventions. *Front Psychiatry, 7,* 152. doi:10.3389/fpsyt.2016.00152

Pashler, H. (2013). *Encyclopedia of the mind*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Perry, A. R., Smith, S. E., & Brooms, D. R. (2014). "You ain't no Denzel": African American men's use of popular culture to narrate and understand marriage and romantic relationships. *Journal of African American Studies, 18,* 485-

497. doi:10.1007/s12111-014-9284-7

Perry, B. D. (2013). *Bonding and attachment in maltreated children*. Retrieved from https://childtrauma.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/11/Bonding_13.pdf

Peter, R. (2012). *Attachment, locus of control, and romantic intimacy in adult children of alcoholics: A correlational investigation* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Thesis database. (No. 3536487)

Polland, S. E., Riggs, S. A., & Hook, J. N. (2014). Mutual influences in adult romantic attachment, religious coping, and marital adjustment. *Journal of Family Psychology*, *28*(5), 615–624. doi:10.1037/a0036682

Price, P. C. (2012). *Research methods in psychology*: *Core concepts and skills*. Irvington, NY: Flat World Knowledge.

Ramo, D. E., & Prochaska, J. J. (2012). Prevalence and co-use of marijuana among young cigarette smokers: An anonymous online national survey. *Addiction Science & Clinical Practice, 7*(5). doi:10.1186/1940-0640-7-5

Rampersad, R. M. (2016). *Understanding attitudes of recently immigrated Caribbean individual toward alcohol use and misuse* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Thesis database. (No. 10258835)

Ramsauer, B., Lotzin, A., Muhlhan, C., Romer, G., Tobias, N., Fonagy, P., & Powell, B. (2014). A randomized controlled trial comparing circle of security intervention and treatment as usual as interventions to increase attachment security in infants of mentally ill mothers: Study protocol. *BMC Psychiatry, 14*(1), 24–35. doi:10.1186/1471-244X-14-24

Read, J., & Bentall, R. P. (2012). Negative childhood experiences and mental health: Theoretical, clinical, and primary prevention implications. *British Journal of Psychology, 200*(2), 89–91. doi:10.1192/bjp.bp.111.096727

Riley, I. (2013). Top 5 most social Caribbean countries and 3 questions Caribbean brands must ask themselves. Retrieved from http://getconnectid.com/2013/02/07/top-5-most-social-caribbean-countries-and-3-questions-caribbean-brands-must-ask-themselves/

Rogleberg, S. G. (2016). *Sage encyclopedia of industrial and organizational psychology* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Sampaio, A., & Lifter, K. (2014). Neurosciences of infant mental health development: Recent findings and implications for counseling psychology. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 61,* 513-520. doi:10.1037/cou0000035

Sanchez, D. (2013). Racial and ego identity development in Black Caribbean students. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 6*(2), 115–126. doi:10.1037/a0031684

Sanchez-Nunez, M. T., Fernandez-Berrocal, P., & Latorre, M. J. (2012). Assessment of emotional intelligence in the family: Influences between parents and children on their own perception and that of others. *Family Journal, 21*(1), 65–73. doi:10.1177/1066480712456821

Sandstrom, H., & Huerta, S. (2013). *Negative effects of instability: A research synthesis*. Washington, DC: Urban Institute.

Santrock, J. W. (2012). *Life-span development* (14th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Schooler, J., Smalley, B. K., & Callahan, T. (2014). *Wounded children, healing homes*:

How traumatized children impact adoptive and foster families. Colorado Springs, CO: NavPress.

Schutt, R. K. (2015). Why use mixed methods? [Blog post]. Retrieved from http://connection.sagepub.com/blog/industry-news/2015/02/11/why-use-mixed-methods-your-questions-answered/

Seedall, R. B. & Lachmar, E. M. (2016). Attachment-related dynamics during a positively themed couple interaction: Implications of anxiety and avoidance. *Couple and Family Psychology: Research and Practice, 5*(1), 27-42. doi:10.1037/cfp0000054

Segrin, C., & Flora, J. (2014). *Family communication*. London, England: Routledge.

Shaefer, D. R., & Kipp, K. (2013). *Developmental psychology: Childhood and adolescence* (9th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Shah, P. E., Fonagy, P., & Strathearn, L. (2011). Is attachment transmitted across generations? The plot thickens. *Clinical Psychology and Child Psychology*, *15*(3), 329–345. doi:10.1177/1359104510365449

Shaver, P. R., & Mikulincer, M. (2014). Adult attachment and emotion regulation. In J. J. Gross (Ed.), *Handbook of emotion regulation* (2nd ed., pp. 237–250). New York, NY: Gilford Press.

Shlafer, R. J., & Poehlmann, J. (2010). Attachment and caregiving relationships in families affected by parental incarceration. *Attachment and Human Development, 12*(4), 395–415. doi:10.1080/14616730903417052

Simpson, J. A., & Campbell, L. (2013). *The Oxford handbook of close relationships*.

New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Simpson, J. A., & Rholes, W. S. (Eds.). (1998). *Attachment theory and close relationship* (46–76). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Söderström, K., & Skårderud, F. (2013). The good, the bad, and the invisible father: A phenomenological study of fatherhood in men with substance use disorder. *Fathering: A Journal of Theory, Research, and Practice about Men as Fathers, 11*(1), 31–51. doi:10.3149/fth.1101.31

Solis, J. M., Shadur, J. M., Burns, A. R., & Hussong, A. M. (2012). Understanding the diverse needs of children whose parents abuse substances. *Current Drug Abuse Reviews, 5*(2), 135–147. doi:10.2174/1874473711205020135

Sousa, C., Herrenkohl, T. I., Moylan, C. A., Tajima, E. A., Herrenkohl, R. C., Klika, J. B., & Russo, J. M. (2011). Longitudinal study on the effects of child abuse and children's exposure to domestic violence, parent-child attachment, and antisocial behavior in adolescents. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 26*(1), 111–136. doi:10.1177/0886260510362883

Spangler, G., Maier, U., Geserick, B., & von Wahlert, A. (2010). The influence of attachment representation on parental perception and interpretation of infant emotions. *Developmental Psychology, 52*(5), 411–423. doi:10.1002/dev.20441

Springle, T. D. (2014). Teach me how to love: Constructions of heterosexual romantic relationships on black relationship blogs (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis database. (No. 33688473)

Sternberg, R. J., & Barnes, M. (Eds.). *The psychology of love* (pp. 68–99). New Haven,

CT: Yale University Press.

Stevens, J. P. (2009). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (5th ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Routledge Academic.

Straussner, S. L. A., & Fewell, C. H. (2011). *Children of substance abusing parents: Dynamics and treatment*. New York, NY: Springer.

Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2012). *National survey on drug use and health*. Retrieved from https://www.samhsa.gov/data/sites/default/files/Spot061ChildrenOfAlcoholics2012/Spot061ChildrenOfAlcoholics2012.pdf

Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2015). Substance use disorders. Retrieved from https://www.samhsa.gov/disorders/substance-use

Suchman, N., DeCoste, C., Rosenberger, P., & McMahon, T. (2012). Attachment-based intervention for substance-abusing mothers: A preliminary test of the proposed mechanisms of change. *Infant Mental Health Journal, 33*(4), 360–371. doi:10.1002/imhj.21311

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Taylor, C. (2010). *A practical guide to caring for children and teenagers with attachment difficulties*. Philadelphia, PA: Jessica Kinsley.

Thomas, L. K. (2016). Generationally transmitted trauma in African descended communities. Retrieved from

http://www.aft.org.uk/SpringboardWebApp/userfiles/aft/file/Sussex%202016/AFT%20Sussex%202016%20-%20%20Lennox%20Thomas.pdf

Thompson, L. C. (2014). *Intergenerational transmission in the African American community: Evaluating fears and anxieties related to relationship development* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (No. 3662164)

Thorberg, F. A., & Lyvers, M. (2010). Attachment in relation to affect regulation and interpersonal functioning among substance use disorder in patients. *Addiction Research & Theory, 18*(4), 464–478. doi:10.3109/16066350903254783

Ugoagwu, P. C. (2012). *The impact of attachment styles on the quality of romantic relationships among African American adults as measured by support, depth, and conflict* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis database. (No. 3546942)

Underwood, K. (2013). *Attachment style, relationship satisfaction, and loneliness in African American adults in relation to childhood parental divorce* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis database. (No. 3596753)

van IJzendoorn, M. H., & Bakermans-Kranenburg, M. J. (2012). Differential susceptibility experiments: Going beyond correlational evidence: Comment on beyond mental health, differential susceptibility articles. *Developmental Psychology, 48*(3), 769–774. doi:10.1037/a0027536

van Ryzin, M. J., Carlson, E. A., & Sroufe, L. A. (2011). Attachment discontinuity in a

high-risk sample. *Attachment and Human Development, 13*(4), 381–401. doi:10.1080/14616734.2011.584403

Verschueren, K., Doumen, S., & Evelien, B. (2012). Relationships with mothers, teachers, and peers: Unique and joint effects on children's self-concept. *Attachment and Human Development, 14*(3), 233–248. doi:10.1080/14616734.2012.672263

Wang, M., Kvis, F. J., & Miller, A. M. (2012). The mediating role of parent-child bond to prevent adolescent alcohol abuse among Asian American families. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health, 14*(5), 831–840. doi:10.1007/s10903-012-9593-7

Watson, B., Robinson, D. H. Z., Harker, L., & Arriola, K. R. J. (2016). The inclusion of African-American study participants in web-based research studies: Viewpoint. *Journal of Medical Internet Research, 18*(6). e168. doi:10.2196/jmir.5486

Weekes-Kanu, J. C. (2013). *General and acculturative stress as predictors of substance use among Black Caribbean Americans* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis database. (No. 3601261)

Wei, M., Russell, D. W., Mallinckrodt, B., & Vogel, D. L. (2007). The experiences in Close Relationship Scale (ECR)-Short Form: Reliability, validity, and factor structure. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 88*(2), 187–204. doi:10.1080/00223890701268041

Wells, S., Dumas, T. M., Bernards, S., Kuntsche, E., Labhart, F., & Graham, K. (2015). Predrinking, alcohol use, and breath alcohol concentration: A study of young adult bargoers. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors, 29*(3), 683–689.

doi:10.1037/adb0000065

Westfall, P. H., & Henning, K. S. S. (2013). *Texts in statistical science: Understanding advanced statistical methods.* Boca Raton, FL: Taylor & Francis.

Whitesell, M., Bachand, A., Peel, J., & Brown, M. (2013). Familial, social, and individual factors contributing to risk for adolescent substance use. *Journal of Addiction, 2013,* 1–9. doi:10.1155/2013/579310

Wierson, M. (2012). Legacy of parental addiction. *Marr Addiction Treatment Center Articles.* Retrieved from https://www.marrinc.org/

Winston, R., & Chicot, R. (2016). The importance of early bonding on the long-term mental health and resilience in children. London Journal of Primary Care, *8,* 12-14. doi:10.1080/17571472.2015.1133012

Wong, M., Bost, K. K., Shin, N., Verissomo, M., Maia, J., Monteiro, L., . . . Vaughn, B. E. (2011). Preschool children's mental representations of attachment: Antecedents in their secure base behaviors and maternal attachment scripts. *Attachment and Human Development, 13,* 489-502. doi:10.1080/14616734.2011.602256

World Health Organization. (2014). Child maltreatment. Retrieved from http://www.who.int/topics/child_abuse/en/

Zaccagnino, M., Cussino, M., Saunders, R., Jacobvitz, D., & Veglia, F. (2012). Alternative caregiving figures and their role on adult attachment representations. *Clinical Psychology & Psychotherapy*, *21*(3), 276–287. doi:10.1002/cpp.1828

Zimmer-Gembeck, M. J., Webb, H. J., Thomas, R., & Klag, S. (2015). A new measure of toddler parenting practices and associations with attachment and mother's

sensitivity, competence, and enjoyment of parenting. *Early Child Development and Care, 185*(9), 1422–1436. doi:10.1080/03004430.2014.1001753

Appendix A: Permission

Shaun Hutton <shaunhutton89@gmail.com>

ECR-SF

Wei, Meifen [PSYCH] <wei@iastate.edu>
To: Shaun Hutton <shaunhutton89@gmail.com>

Wed, Mar 15, 2017 at 10:14 AM

Please feel free to use it. You have my permission to use it. Best wishes to your study!

From: Shaun Hutton <shaunhutton89@gmail.com>
Sent: Wednesday, March 15, 2017 8:15 AM
To: Wei, Meifen [PSYCH]
Subject: Re: ECR-SF

[Quoted text hidden]

Appendix B: Demographic Questionnaire

1) What is your age?
   18-20
   21-23
   24-26
   27+

2) Have you graduated from college?
   Yes
   No

3) What is your ethnicity?*
   Bahamian
   Haitian
   Jamaican

4) Have you been in a relationship for at least 1 year?
   Yes
   No

5) What is your relationship status?
   Single
   Dating
   Married

6) What is your partner's ethnicity?
   Asian
   Black
   African American
   Native American
   Pacific Islander
   White

7) Do you have a family history of alcohol use?
   Yes
   No

*Ethnicity: Indicate only if you were born and lived in one of the referenced countries at least up to age 15.
**Race: Asian, Black, Native American, Pacific Islander, White

Appendix C: Alcohol Use Questionnaire

No Use	Yes	No
Moderate Use	Yes	No
Heavy Use	Yes	No

Moderate
Men: Up to two drinks daily

Heavy
Up to five or more drink in one sitting on each of the five days within the past 30 days

*For this study, an alcohol drink is noted to be 12 ounces of beer, a 5-ounce glass of wine, or 1.5 ounce shot of hard alcohol. The amounts are based on SAMHSA's established guidelines for measuring alcohol use.

Appendix D: Family Tree Questionnaire

INSTRUCTIONS: For each relative listed below, we want you to categorize their drinking behavior into one of five categories. Only include blood relatives; that is, relatives by birth. Not included would be those adopted, half-siblings, and step-relatives.

CODE EACH RELATIVE USING ONE OF THE FOLLOWING 5 CODES:

1. **NEVER DRANK:** A person who (has) **never** consumed alcohol beverages (i.e., a lifelong abstainer; teetotaler).
2. **SOCIAL DRINKER:** A person who drinks moderately and is not known to have a drinking problem.
3. **POSSIBLE PROBLEM DRINKER:** A person who you believe or were told might have (had) a drinking problem, but whom you are not certain actually had a drinking problem.
4. **DEFINITE PROBLEM DRINKER:** Only include here persons who either are known to have received treatment for a drinking problem (including being a regular member of Alcoholics Anonymous), or who are known to have experienced several negative consequences of their drinking.
5. **NO RELATIVE**: Only applicable for brothers and sisters.
6. **DON'T KNOW/DON'T REMEMBER**

Maternal Grandmother (Mother's mother) (1)_____

Maternal Grandfather (Mother's father) (2) _____

Paternal Grandmother (Father's mother) (3) _____

Paternal Grandfather (Father's father) (4) _____

Mother

Father

(5)_____

(6) _____

Your Brothers

Y O U

Your Sisters

(7)___(8)___(9)___(10)___

(11)___(12)___(13)___(14)___